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Research on school dropouts is handicapped in the following areas: definition of the dropout population, inconsistent methods of data collection, inadequate research designs, community variation, variation in type of dropout, and knowledge of the process of dropping out. Dropout groups should be clearly defined, and variation in these groups should be emphasized. School records should not be relied on too heavily. Extensive interviews are effective. Community variations should be considered and generalizations should not be made without these considerations. Research should emphasize the process of dropping out instead of the properties of school dropouts.

The interpretation of results is deeply affected by the elements that produced the research reports. Some things to be condidered are: dropout rates, sex, racial and ethnic background, family type, age of dropouts, intelligence and achievement, grade attainment, and reasons for leaving or staying in school.

High-aspiring dropouts who return to school have generally been neglected in research. Training and change at the teacher level is most effective when it is coupled with change at the administrative level. The success of many projects in low-income schools rests with organizational change rather than with the adoption of specific packages of programs.

An annotated bibliography of research on dropouts is included. Major areas are: statement and definition of the problem, social characteristics, profile of the dropout in the school setting, post-dropout attitudes and experiences, action programs and recommendations, and bibliographies on dropouts.

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SCHOOL DROPOUTS:

A COMMENTARY AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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1964

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INTRODUCTION

The Syracuse University Youth Development Center has done considerable research on school dropouts. In the course of this research, staff members had an opportunity to survey literature on the subject. The enormity of this literature, the importance of "keeping up to date," the frequent unintended secrecy of the various types of publication, the capriciousness of distribution, and the unevenness in quality have led us to attempt to systematize the findings of these investigations and to make them available to others. The result is a detailed, annotated, and classified bibliography, organized by subject and author. Part I, "Commentary," discusses some problems of the quality and interpretation of dropout research as well as current action programs.

How to Use the Bibliography

Part II is a subject or topical classification; summaries of relevant sections of the studies are included under each subject heading. Combinations of letters and numerals, such as A-6, B-27, are assigned to each annotation in Part II as an identifying symbol. In addition, Arabic numerals are placed in parentheses, such as (10), (84), at the end of each annotation. These refer to Part III, the author and title section, where Arabic numbers are used to denote each study. Every listing in Part III also includes the symbols of the annotations in Part II which utilize that study, so that Part III is, in effect, an index of contents. Brief background notes are appended to the studies listed in Part III.

A reader should first look up the subject annotations in Part II. He should then consult in Part III the general comments on each relevant study to make sure that the subject comment is useful to him.

Section F of Part II lists bibliographies so that the reader may refer to the wider range of literature.

A Word of Caution

The bibliography, restricted to the United States, is far from being a complete listing of all of the American reports available. The studies utilized here appeared between 1949 and 1961; the majority are located in the time period 1952 to 1960.

Certain well-known investigations could not be located in available libraries and hence are not included. We have also tended to eliminate essay-type articles and to concentrate on research reports. A number of studies are not included because their methods appeared faulty or their conclusions insubstantial.

Coverage is particularly weak in certain subject areas, such as action programs, because our primary emphasis has been on etiology. On the other hand, the bibliography is not parochial in its coverage since a wide range of periodicals was surveyed. Restrictions of time, funds, and staff placed further limitations on the amount of material that could be covered. Inclusion in the bibliography is not an accolade, nor is exclusion a negative rating.

The contribution of the bibliography is its effort to report systematically and compactly the findings of a large number of investigations.

Technical Terms

Two technical terms are employed:

1. Age cohort: A population followed over time, e.g., fifth-graders followed until their graduation or withdrawal from high school. Cross-sectional studies, in contrast, compare two separate populations at one point in time; for example, a group of dropouts can be compared with a group of high school graduates of the same year to see their similarities and differences, even though the two populations actually have no members in common.

2. Statistical significance: A method of checking statistical results to see whether the differences that are found are so small that they could have happened by chance. A difference is considered to be "significant," i.e., unlikely to be attributable to chance and therefore of potential importance, if it could occur by chance factors no more frequently than 5 out of 100 occasions; this is the .05 level of significance. A more rigorous test is the .01 level--the difference would occur because of chance factors no more frequently than once in 100 occasions.

PART I

COMMENTARY

CHAPTER I

THE CHARACTER OF DROPOUT RESEARCH

The enormous literature on school dropouts is uneven. Studies employ different definitions; methods vary and are often inadequate. Research results frequently cannot be taken at face value because of imperfections in orientation, design, and analysis. The study of dropouts is indeed refractory and a consumer of research reports must be prepared to sift through to see not only what is relevant to his uses but what is reliable as well.

The present chapter examines some problems in existing studies. The following difficulties are explored:

(1) The Definition of the Dropout Population
(2) The Methods of Data Collection
(3) Research Design
(4) Community Variations
(5) Types of Dropouts
(6) The Process of Dropping Out

Definition of the Dropout Population

The dropout unit is not uniformly specified in current community research. The young person who leaves school before high school graduation has been given several labels, such as school dropout, early school leaver, out-of-schooler, non-graduate, and school withdrawee. All of these terms are used interchangeably. Furthermore, some studies are concerned with the holding power of schools, defined loosely as the percentage of all students in the school who graduate.

Despite the voluminous research and essay material on the subject, the term "dropout," or whatever other label is used, is seldom carefully defined. As a result, many studies which purport to deal with dropouts are, in fact, dealing with other populations.

It is known that many young people who withdraw from school will later return, whether to day school or to evening classes. [In a Syracuse, New York, study (6, p. 160), 20 out of 87 dropouts were getting more training two years after leaving school.] Nevertheless, most researchers write of dropouts without specifying whether or not they are including those who received some later training. Only four studies in this bibliography specified whether their samples included returnees or how many of their dropout subjects had returned to school (9, 26, 28, 67). Two of these (9 and 28) were concerned only with returnees; that is, California youth who had withdrawn from regular schools but were attending special classes in "continuation schools."

Only a few studies distinguish between involuntary and voluntary dropouts, and those studies that do, define the two categories in various ways. For example, in one study involuntary dropouts were defined as those who gave such reasons for leaving as illness, marriage, enlistment, draft, or change of residence (48, p. 73). In another study, voluntary withdrawals were defined as those who left for reasons over which the school presumably has some control, as "needed at home," "married," "to enter employment," and so on. Involuntary withdrawals were defined as those who left for reasons over which the school has little control, such as physical disability, drafted, uneducable, institutionalized, deceased, and transferred to another school (15, 85). Few studies have attempted to distinguish between those who decided to leave and those who were eliminated by school authorities because of severe failure, misbehavior, or pregnancy.

School transfers are not uniformly treated. It is often difficult to determine whether a student has withdrawn from school or has transferred to another school. Few researchers mention how they handled this problem. At least one study (49) included transfers in the dropout population.

Most studies do not clearly indicate at what point after leaving school the former students are studied. Some reports include dropouts who have been out of school varying lengths of time. Other studies use a group of dropouts who left in the same semester or year though these dropouts may have nothing else in common. Still others use an age or grade cohort and dropouts are all from this group which did not complete school.

National studies[1] comparing the school population in the fifth grade and completing the twelfth grade seven years later overcome some of these problems since they are not affected by transfers from one locality to another. This technique, when repeated over a period of several years, reveals differences in dropout rates for the nation as a whole in various years. To the extent that youth mortality and school retardation rates vary over the years, the national rates are inaccurate. Obviously, the closer together are the years compared, the more reliable are the comparisons.

---

[1] See "School Dropouts," Project: School Dropouts (Washington: National Education Association, April, 1963. Mimeographed.).

Methods of Data Collection

It is common in social research to emphasize ingenuity of data analysis more than the quality of the basic data which are processed. Obviously, the mode of collecting data will affect the confidence one can have in the results.

The basic methods are:

1. School records - This method has many weaknesses: data are often incomplete; the source of information may be the young child; reasons for leaving may be excuses or labels assigned by school officials "for the records"; IQ scores from different tests at varying age levels are reported.
2. Interviewing of dropouts by school personnel, e.g., guidance counselors or teachers - This method suffers from the impact upon the student of the official school status of the interviewer, the lack of training in research techniques, and the unevenness of subjective judgment in appraising the behavior and attitudes of others.
3. Questionnaires sent to dropouts - Not all questionnaires are returned, so that a self-selection of respondents is frequently very important, affecting the generalizability of results.
4. Several careful studies have used interviews by trained interviewers plus at least one other source of data.

A major difficulty of dropout research has been the heavy reliance on school records. Records kept for other than research purposes are notoriously inadequate instruments of research. Interviews by experienced personnel, not only of dropout youth but also of those adults with whom these youth have been in contact -- parents, teachers, businessmen, police -- are essential to adequate research on the dropout problem.

Research Design

Many studies of dropout youth have suffered from inadequate research designs. The most frequent procedure is to present a profile, that is, a percentage-distribution of a dropout population in terms of social background and academic performance; no comparisons are made with youth who remain in school until graduation. Relationships between such variables as social class and grade attained at time of dropout are investigated only occasionally, and yet analyses such as this could be undertaken even without a control group of non-dropouts. Most of the research has been basically descriptive and preliminary to any real analysis of the dropout process.

Recently, however, increasing sophistication in research has led to the introduction of control groups, making possible the comparison of dropouts and non-dropouts. A wide variety of control groups has been used:

1. The entire population of the school from which the school-leavers dropped out - The school population, when it is used, is a control group only implicitly in that comparisons are made between the dropouts and the in-schoolers, but there is no systematic effort to investigate any variables related to dropping out.

2. Graduates or youth still in school, selected from recent graduating classes or from the current school population - Such a method does not control for age; dropouts are generally compared with younger or older youth or with graduates of varying ages.

3. Graduates or youth still in school, selected from the same potential graduating class and the same school as the dropouts - "Potential graduating class" is defined as all youth who enter a specified grade level at the same time. Any grade level may be used as a base line, but the fifth, ninth, and twelfth are used most frequently.

The introduction of a control group does not automatically solve all problems. For example, a population of dropouts largely from poor families may be compared with a sample of stay-ins from the same school body, but containing children in quite different income groups. As a result, differences between the compared groups may not be due to differences between dropouts and graduates but to differences between the offspring of low-income and middle-income families. Consequently, much of the research interpretation is extremely hazardous.

A minority of the studies of dropouts have controlled for social class in some way. One method is to select only those non-dropouts from the lower socio-economic levels or from a trade school, which presumably draws its students from lower-income families. The weakness of this method is that it ignores the great variation existing among dropouts, both before and after leaving school; in particular, not all dropouts come from low-income families. A second method of controlling for social class is to select a group of non-dropouts in order to match the group of dropouts on the percentage of parents at each occupational, income or social status level. With social class-mixed groupings, however, it is difficult to ascertain the influence or non-influence of the factors subsumed under "social class." At the least, it is necessary to compare dropouts and controls, holding social class constant. What are the differences and similarities of dropouts and controls who are both low-income or both high-income? Without breakdowns of some kind, mechanical use of controls may not be effective. This third method, controlling social class as a variable, is most effective if used with a total population or a random sample from a specified universe of dropouts or graduates (e.g., all dropouts and graduates in one city).

Results obviously will differ depending on the kind of social class or occupational classification employed. Almost all who do control for socio-economic level use crude measures such as the census classification of occupational titles, which has a considerable range within each category. The result is that the dropout and control groups may be quite different even though there appears to be a similarity in each occupational category.

Controlling for social class is a difficult process, but an essential step of the research design if spurious results are to be avoided.

The inadequacies in control groups are not the only defects in research design and analysis. Few studies describe the degree of relationship between early school leaving and the factors studied. Subsequently, little evidence is presented regarding possible relationships between a combination of characteristics (composite indices) and the persistence of students in school. Two or three studies in this bibliography do make such an attempt (e.g., 51, pp. 197-98, 200).

Community Variations

The problem of school dropouts is tremendously varied in the United States. What is true of one community does not seem to be true of other communities. In some areas, it is clear that a much higher percentage of girls than boys drop out, regardless of social class factors. The dropout rate is much higher in some places than in others. In some communities dropouts are fairly easily visible by the time of the first and second grade, while in other communities this is not true. We must be cautious of over-generalizing a typology of dropouts and the process of dropping out because of this tremendous variation from community to community.

Further, dropout rates for a community as a whole can obscure the great variations which may exist in different schools within the community. The most interesting comparisons between communities, then, would be of dropout rates for schools with a similar social class and ethnic clientele. Variations in residential mobility in different communities may affect dropout rates, necessitating great care in comparison of communities.

It is possible, though this has not been done, to analyze existing data on dropouts by the characteristics of the community studied--e.g., size and character of the economic base, nature of the population. How do various community characteristics affect the nature of the dropout experience? Until we have a more systematic statement relating community to dropout experiences, it is extremely dangerous to generalize from one community to any others and certainly not to the United States as a whole.

Types of Dropouts

In general, there has been inadequate attention to types of dropouts. Typologies can be constructed using variables such as social class, race, sex, school performance, personality orientation (e.g., intra-punitive, extra-punitive), social adjustment, and the like. One study suggests that the variables of class, sex, and race produce types which differ in etiology and post-school prospects. Livingston (52, p. 268) asserts that the grade at which school leaving occurs may be an important variable in defining types of dropouts. He contends, for example, that the dropout in the eighth grade may differ from all graduates. Perhaps one-fifth of dropouts come from families well above the low-income levels. These dropouts probably differ from dropouts from low-income families. Some dropouts have a distinctly persistent poor academic record, first manifested in the early grades of school; other dropouts do fairly well until junior high school; still others first encounter difficulties at a later point. These different patterns may be highly significant.

In short, we must avoid discussion of "the dropout" and begin to perceive the variations among dropouts. Current research has not been alerted to different types of dropouts with varying histories, experiences, and futures.

The Process of Dropping Out

The focus of most research is such that only limited kinds of results can emerge. The emphasis has been mainly upon the properties of school dropouts, rather than on the process of dropping out. This is important because some recent information suggests that it is difficult to identify dropouts at an early stage despite the claims.[2] It does not seem to be true that most dropouts are identifiable at an early point in school and maintain a pattern which will clearly lead them into eventually leaving school before graduation.

Obviously then, we must begin to talk about the different processes which draw people into the experience of early school leaving. There probably are different patterns: some youth clearly are destined from an early point in their school career to leave school, while others do not begin to emerge into a dropout route until a late point in their school careers.

There may be different warning flags at different points in the school experience of youths. We may need to turn to the examination of what might be termed the "natural history" of the process of dropping out, looking for the crucial turning points, the kinds of experiences, the cumulative events which lead to early school leaving. Here again, it may be wise to look for a variety of dropout processes rather than accentuating only one. This orientation may provide new opportunities of dealing with the problem of early school leaving. Can turning points be made to lead to school rather than away from it? Are different things needed by different types of dropouts at various times?

---

[2] John Porter, in a paper read at the Symposium on School Dropouts, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., December, 1962.

CHAPTER II

INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

The hundreds of studies of dropouts have had varying orientations and procedures. The interpretations of results are deeply affected by the elements that produced the research reports. In this chapter, we indicate some considerations which are important in interpreting various research subjects.

Dropout Rates

Two types of dropout rates are commonly used in reporting or estimating the extent of the dropout problem in a community. The annual rate refers to the percentage of the total enrollment of the community schools who drop out during one year or one semester. The longitudinal rate refers to the total percentage of an age cohort, e.g., all those who enter the fifth grade during the same year, who drop out at any time before graduating from high school. The annual rate is always much lower than the longitudinal rate. This important distinction does not always seem to be clear in discussions of dropout rates.

Two other factors should be taken into consideration when comparing dropout rates of different communities. Some statistics refer to the holding power of schools, that is the percentage graduating, whereas others refer to percentage dropping out. Also, there is no common base for computing longitudinal rates. An age cohort of those entering first grade may be used, as may an age cohort of fifth-graders. The latter base is becoming more frequently used. The most common rate is still figured, however, on the basis of those who enter high school. This procedure understates the rate by neglecting those who have dropped out prior to the ninth grade, which is a sizeable number in some communities.[3]

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[3] In Syracuse, New York, 10 per cent of all dropouts left before entering the ninth grade. See S. M. Miller, Carolyn Comings, and Betty Saleem, The School Dropout Problem: Syracuse (New York State Division for Youth and Syracuse University Youth Development Center), 1963.

Sex

The general finding is that boys more frequently leave school than girls. It is important to analyze these sex differences by some indicator of social class. Arthur Pearl's study of Rochester, New York, conducted by the New York State Division for Youth, reveals that in low-income areas a higher percentage of girls than of boys leave school before graduation. As in other cities, boys predominate over all among dropouts. The importance of low-income girl dropouts is covered up by the gross figures which are affected by the overwhelming predominance of boys among dropouts from high-income neighborhoods.

Research has tended to ignore the girl dropout although she may be a majority of all low-income dropouts in the United States. As Maurice Connery has pointed out, girl dropouts frequently seem to ignore the likelihood that they will have to work much of their lives.[4] New kinds of programs may be necessary for them.

Racial and Ethnic Background

Data on race and ethnic group are limited, due in part to laws prohibiting the writing of a student's race in school records. In analyzing race or ethnic background as factors in dropping out, the variable of social class should be controlled. If it is not controlled, then the class factor rather than ethnic or racial factors could be producing difference among populations. Social class was not controlled in any of the studies reporting race.

Family Type

When family size is reported, it is not always clear whether the researcher is reporting the number of siblings of the dropouts, or the total number of people in the family, including parents.

The term "broken home" carries different meanings for different researchers. Does the term include cases where the parents have been separated, but remarried, so that there is one parent and one step-parent in the home? Does it include homes "broken" by the death of one parent? Or does it simply refer to families in which only one natural parent is present due to separation or divorce? Very seldom do the researchers state explicitly their definitions of broken and normal homes.

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[4] Analysis of unemployment data indicates that the rate of unemployment is higher among young Negro females than among young and old white males and females, or Negro males.

Most researchers agree that a large percentage of dropouts come from broken homes. What is not often pointed out is that an even larger percentage come from apparently intact homes.

The importance of broken homes in encouraging early school leaving is unclear because of the absence of effective control groups. Very often the percentage of dropouts from broken homes is reported without any control group of graduates for comparison. When a control group is used, social class is not usually held constant. Since broken homes occur with much greater frequency in the lower socio-economic levels, general social class factors rather than specific dropout-producing factors may be involved in high rates of broken homes among dropouts.

Age of Dropouts

The minimum age when compulsory school attendance is no longer in effect is very often a determining factor in the age distribution of dropouts. Dropping out tends to occur most frequently at or near this minimum school-leaving age. Since school attendance laws vary from state to state, this factor must be kept in mind when comparing age distribution of dropouts in different areas.

Intelligence and Aptitude

Most researchers agree that dropouts tend to score lower than graduates on intelligence tests. This consistency in findings, however, should not be taken as a definite indication of the lower mental ability of those who do not finish high school. Few studies control for socio-economic background of the student. The correlation between social class and intelligence quotient indicates that intelligence tests are measuring to some extent the same thing that performance in school is measuring, that is, opportunity to acquire certain academic skills and knowledge from one's family and peers. Consequently, intelligence comparisons between dropouts and graduates should control for social class.

The majority of the studies are concerned with dropouts from urban schools. Since measured intelligence has been shown to correlate with residence, care should be taken in generalizing from an urban group to all dropouts, and in comparing studies of rural and urban youth with those dealing with urban youth alone.

Various intelligence tests have been used by the researchers and each test has its own normal mean and standard deviation, making it difficult to compare test results. Many researchers did not report which test they used, calling for great caution in interpretation and comparisons.

The most important research finding about intelligence is that most studies show that, even with the biases of IQ tests, a sizeable number of dropouts achieve at least normal IQ scores, evidencing an ability to do school work.

Grade Attainment of Dropouts

The grade attainment of dropouts can be stated in several ways. Most studies report the grade reached or attained by the youngsters, that is, the grade the students were in at the time they left school, or the grade the students would have been in had they returned after summer vacation. Other studies refer to the last grade that was actually completed. Unfortunately, most authors are not clear as to which grade level they are reporting.

Reasons for Leaving or Staying in School

Information on reasons for leaving school can be determined in two ways: (1) by interviews with or questionnaires from the dropouts themselves; (2) by merely checking school records. As some of the investigations reported below show, the different methods yield different results.[5] Consequently, it is important to report the methods used.

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[5] See U.S. Department of Labor (C-147) and Moore (C-158).

Reasons given for leaving are notoriously inadequate: the art of asking "why" has been highly developed in social research but has not reached out into the study of dropouts. Where there is dependence on school records, the listing of reasons cannot be taken at face value. The utilization in research of records kept for administrative and other reasons is almost always very treacherous.

CHAPTER III

STRATEGY, STRUCTURE, AND VALUES IN SCHOOL PROGRAMS

The low-educated youth of today is relatively worse off than was his graduate counterpart, even a generation ago. Obviously, the adaptation of schools to deal more effectively with dropouts--in both preventive and remedial activities--is only one mode of attack on the problem. Basic economic and social issues are involved in the attempts to deal adequately with the issues raised by early school leaving. In this concluding chapter, the perspective is narrowed, however, to the role of the school in reducing dropouts and we shall deal with selected aspects of the tactics, strategy, structure, and values of the various action programs involving school change.

Two Neglected Groups

"High aspiring" dropouts have been neglected. Many low-income families, especially Negro, have very high educational and occupational aspirations for their children. Low-income children often report high aspirations. A number of studies of Negroes show their generally high regard for education and their high occupational aims. Nevertheless, many of them will be dropouts. Frequently they have been characterized as possessing "unrealistic" aspirations, regarded as rather silly or unknowing, and no special attention has been paid to what is termed the "unrealistic high aspirer."

At the same time, many low-income groups have been charged with having little interest in education and possessing low educational and occupational aspirations. "Unrealistic" high aspirations and low aspirations are lumped together when interpreting attitudes of low-income youth. But individuals with extremely high aspirations are likely to be different in at least some ways from individuals with low aspirations, even if both groups have high dropout rates.

High aspirers are likely to have a more positive view of schools and education than low aspirers. The high rate of early school leaving among high aspirers is indicative of the school's failure to take hold of the special characteristics of this group. Special strategies are probably needed to be effective with high aspiring individuals with low-income backgrounds. This is not the place to suggest the strategies but to point out the neglect of an important group which apparently has some accessible potential for staying in school compared to groups which have low career aspirations and negative evaluations of education.

A second neglected group are the returnees--dropouts who go on to some form of further education after leaving school. Returnees may be as much as 25 per cent of all dropouts.[6] A much more systematic way of reacting and responding to these dropouts is needed since they have great potential for the maintenance of their school careers if encouraged. Many more dropouts might return if more effort were directed to them.

Many students build up a momentum towards leaving school. Counseling and guidance attention during this outwardly spiraling period tend to be ineffective ; each youth is propelled along in the dropout direction and intervention is ineffective, exit interviews becoming formalities. After dropping out, however, it still may be possible to reach these young people, encourage them to return to school, and provide flexible school procedures which facilitate re-entry. Provision of aggressive, "reaching out" counseling aid when the youth is in the labor market may be more important in many cases than its availability prior to leaving school.

The high aspirers and the returnees are only two types of dropouts. Available material on dropouts[7] indicates how varied they are; we should not be thinking of the dropout but of different types of dropouts, needing different environments and aid at various times. Obviously, then, various kinds and types of teachers are needed.

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[6] See Betty L. Saleem and S. M. Miller, "The Neglected Dropout: The Returnee," (Syracuse University Youth Development Center, July, 1963. Mimeographed.).

[7] For a discussion of different types of dropouts, see S. M. Miller, "Dropouts--A Political Problem," paper read at the Symposium on School Dropouts, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., December, 1962, and S. M. Miller and Ira E. Harrison, "Types of Dropouts: 'The Unemployables' " (Syracuse University Youth Development Center, March, 1963. Mimeographed.).

Pluralism in Teaching Perfection

Unfortunately, an implicit model of an ideal teacher frequently prevails. Teachers are expected to, or believe that they should, fashion themselves after the model. The existence of many different kinds of successful teachers has been inadequately recognized. In observing schools we have been struck by the great variety of successful teachers, some of whom have quite antithetical styles. An enormous range of styles seems necessary with low-income youngsters. A model, even implicit, of *the* ideal teacher encourages teachers into a mold. Rather, emphasis should be on each teacher developing a style which fits with her interests, personality, and orientation as they relate to the particular students she has at a particular time. To provide confidence for teachers of low-income youngsters, it may be necessary to provide some concrete teaching tactics about what can be done in a classroom. The emphasis, however, should be on how the teacher can relate her own abilities and inclinations to the problems. The orientation should not be towards specific techniques which are thought to have all-powerful consequences, but upon the uniqueness of teachers and their differentiated abilities. It is important for teachers and training programs to accept the diversity of teachers and to try to develop the kinds of strategy that would be most effective for a teacher, given her personality, interests, and aptitudes (although these can be developed and channeled).

In this connection, inadequate attention has been devoted to effective teachers. In every school, no matter what its general character, some teachers are effective with children. We need better *understanding* of what these effective teachers do. An important research project could be developed around close study of and interviews with these effective teachers so that it would be possible to develop inductively a scheme of effective teaching processes. We are not referring to the use of clip-books or other tactics that may be employed by an effective teacher, but to the underlying and frequently implicit *strategy* that is involved. Frequently, the tactics of effective teachers are picked up and distributed to a wider group of teachers while the teaching strategies which give rise to or utilize these techniques are ignored. The job of research is to sift through tactics, noting which ones have transfer value of themselves, to uncover the basic strategies which could be adapted in many different ways by other teachers.

Structural Change

School systems generally have not developed the qualities of flexibility and adaptiveness necessary for the problems of today. The great expansion of education in this century and the unevenness of its quality have led quite naturally to regulations and procedures aimed at maintaining standards and insuring common practices over a large educational enterprise. Now, flexibility and experimentation should assume prime importance, at least in large city schools.

One strategy is to have the schools operate like some modern mental hospitals which, once a person has been a patient there, feel a recurring responsibility to him. He can live in the hospital at night and work in the community; he can utilize the facilities of the hospital during the day and live in the community at night. He can sign himself into and out of the hospital at will; his stays can be short or long. The social service department provides aid in the community to former patients and their families. The hospital attitude is to help provide what is needed to aid the individual at different points in his life. The general aim is to facilitate the individual's functioning in the larger community by using the hospital in a variety of ways.

The dropout is not a mental patient. But his needs, his recognition of them, and his ability and preparedness to do something about them, differ at various points (as do the needs of mental patients and all of us). Schools should be willing, for example, to re-admit at any time a youth who has left school, rather than insisting that September and February are the entry points. Schools might also bear the continuing responsibility for extended counseling and guidance to dropouts; with the diversification of services and agencies, one problem can become "multi-problems" as many agencies become involved. Courses in the early years of high school might be those which particularly interest non-verbally oriented students, with some of the required courses, (e.g., English and History) concentrated in the later years when motivation or understanding is higher.

These suggestions are illustrative of structural changes in schools which could have ramifying effects. These types of changes have to go hand in hand with general improvement in teaching youth of low-income families. The current emphasis seems to be much more on pedagogic innovation and up-grading than on structural innovation. The latter, we feel, has considerable importance.

Large city school systems have, in some ways, more possibility of structural flexibility than smaller systems. Because of the great school population, there is likely to be a sizeable number of youth who have common needs at a particular time; consequently, the per capita cost of a program can be less than when only a few youth need "adaptive school arrangements" at a given moment of time.

Organizational Style

We have been impressed in our observations of schools with the imprint of the principal and/or the superintendent on what takes place. In some schools it seems possible in an half-hour to develop a fairly adequate idea of how the principal operates. This organizational style affects a great deal of what takes place inside and outside the school building.

Consequently, a major emphasis should be upon encouraging new and deepened outlooks among school principals and superintendents. Our experience in a variety of settings is that training is usually beamed at the foot-soldier: the teacher in the classroom, the social worker in the clinic, the foreman and shop steward in the plant. But much of what these practitioners can do is conditioned by the organizational environment in which they operate. Many come back from training programs imbued with zeal for change and new pursuits only to find an uninterested or negative administration.

Our conclusion is that training and change at the teacher level is most effective when it is coupled with change at the administrative level.

Frequently, the most important changes are in how the school administration relates to teachers and students.

Changes at the administrative level make possible and encourage possibilities at the teacher level (and in the office and janitorial roles, which are frequently overlooked in their impact upon students). Obviously, teachers can do much to improve their teaching without administrative change, and the absence of administrative change should not be used as an excuse for individual teachers to avoid rethinking their role. But the crucial importance of organizational form and style has been largely ignored. Retraining cannot be sprinkled through an organization with the expectation of big changes unless the organization as an entity changes.

We suspect that the success of many projects in low-income schools rests with organizational change rather than in the adoption of specific packages of programs. School administrations demonstrating a heightened interest and belief in the educability of low-income youth are most likely to be able to engender positive action among the students. The importance of Hawthorne effects, deriving from concern and interest rather than from specific activities, may be underplayed in our understanding and interpretation of successful programs. Programs can be easily copied; concern can not. It is this situation which underlines the importance of administrative orientation and stance.

Some proposed school innovations are techniques; almost all assume or are directed at organizational and classroom climate changes. Evaluation, therefore, should not be mechanically statistical, indicating the planned input and what appears to be the educational output. A clinical view of the organizational process is important and neglected--how does successful introduction of new and effective practices in schools, especially those in slum areas, occur? What are the activities which are most easily changed? What are the important resistances to change? How have they been met? To what extent and in what ways can teachers' behavior be changed without overall organizational change?

Attitudes and Values

What is crucial about organizational style is the climate it creates; what is effective about the successful teacher is the attitude she conveys to the students. Tactics, strategy, and structure are important; also important are the attitudes and values of the teachers, administrator, and auxiliary staff for they affect the atmosphere in which things happen or do not happen.

An interesting example from mental hospitals: ward attendants were told that patients were now receiving tranquilizers. The attendants later reported that patients were more tractable and much easier to handle. In fact, patients had been given placebos, tablets with no medicinal effects! The patients had not changed; the ward attendants had. They now thought that patients would not be difficult, acted on that basis, and found less difficulty. The implication of this incident for schools is that the attitude of school personnel is crucial in what takes place.

Changes in tactics, strategy, and structure can founder if the attitudes of school personnel do not change. Confidence and hope that students can develop competencies and be interested in school contribute to the achievement of such results. Changed values and attitudes may usually have to be buttressed with new tactics, strategy, and structure. But it is important to recognize that values and attitudes permeate the complex human interactions of schools.

In this connection, it is important to avoid placing the responsibility for solutions on the client, the student. A professional takes responsibility upon himself. If his job is to teach and if students have problems limiting their effective response to the classroom, then the professional has to define the problem as how can a professional deal with these difficulties. It may be that the student can be better prepared but the essential thrust is always towards the professional and his responsibility for action to improve the situation.

The use of the term "culturally deprived" raises a number of questions that bear on this problem. The term implies that most Americans have a standard set of items which are desirable in and of themselves, and that lack of these items provides the basic reasons for school failure. All three suppositions are doubtful, but the most important aspect is that the use of the term puts the burden on the student rather than on the schools' responsibility to deal with children of diverse background or experience.

Schools and Society

The effective school programs in low-income areas seem to involve (1) a direct and concerted attempt to build the competencies of students, especially in reading; (2) changing the organizational structure and climate so that students (and parents) develop a more favorable attitude towards school; (3) utilizing teachers more effectively (reduced class size); (4) widening horizons by undertaking additional school programs (trips out of the neighborhood); (5) using specialized personnel (counselors, psychologists, teacher helpers) to permit the teacher to concentrate on the teaching relationship and to provide help with special problems (psychological treatment of disturbed youth); (6) building favorable attitudes and behavior among school personnel to the programs and students; (7) developing the competencies of school personnel to deal with the school problems of low-income youth; and (8) encouraging more favorable self-images among students.

Decreasing the number of dropouts is only one way of dealing with the growing problem of youth and employment--and it may be a very inadequate one if jobs are not available in sufficient numbers for high school graduates. In this century many community problems have been thrust upon the schools; it may be important for school personnel to point out constantly the responsibility of the polity generally for the functioning of the economy and for its impact upon youth. Schools cannot solve the problems of slow economic growth, anarchic labor markets, and the like. They can serve to improve, to some extent, the quality of labor, but the demand for labor would still be a prime problem. The efforts of American schools to improve the prospects of low-income youth can be only one mode of attack on the problems. In each community, schools may have to play the important role of pointing out the varied and extensive programs and actions that are needed.

PART II

TOPICAL ANNOTATIONS

SECTION A

STATEMENT AND DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM

Early School Leaving as a National Problem

Changing Character of the Labor Market

A-1 The United States Department of Labor predicted that during the next ten years there would be a 25 per cent increase in the demand for technically and scientifically trained skilled workers. (5, p. 11)

A-2 By the late 1960's, three million young workers will enter the labor force, as compared to two million in 1961. These youth should have the education required to meet the increasingly high skill levels demanded by the modern economy. They will need at least a high school education to qualify for professional and technical occupations (expected to increase by 40 per cent in the sixties) and for clerical and sales jobs (to increase by 28 per cent). (16, p. 1)

A-3 The Job Guide for Young Workers, which lists 85 jobs frequently open to youth of high school age, mentioned only 23 which did not require a high school diploma. (58, p. 3)

A-4 It was estimated that the New York State labor force would expand at an average rate of 1.5 per cent annually from 1957 to 1970. Youth would make up 44 per cent of this increase; older persons, 51 per cent; and the intermediate ages, only 5 per cent. Young workers, 14 to 19 years old, will increase 59 per cent from 1957 to 1970. Youth, ages 20 to 24, will increase 64 per cent. This latter group constituted one-eleventh of the work force in 1957, but will account for one-eighth in 1970. (59, pp. 1, 6-7)

A-5 Two-thirds of the service workers, operatives, and laborers in the labor force of the United States are school dropouts. Two-thirds of the unemployed did not graduate from high school. This decade's expected 7.5 million dropouts will be almost useless in a world where, by 1970, not more than 5 per cent of all available jobs will be unskilled. (75, p. 2)

Employment Difficulties of Young People

A-6 The rate of unemployment for young people between 18 and 24 years old is three times higher than the national average of 6 per cent. The rate of unemployment is almost 30 per cent for the youth of this age group who do not have high school diplomas. In the 1960's, the under-25 age group will increase by almost 50 per cent. Unless past trends are reversed, one of every three of these young people will not finish high school and will not be eligible for skilled jobs. By 1965, three dropouts will apply for every two jobs available to them. Employers will find it increasingly difficult to fill key positions, and the number of unemployed will increase. (30, pp. 6-8)

A-7 Dropouts are the most difficult group to place on a job. Many employers feel that if these young people could not get along with their teachers, they would not adjust to authority and supervision on the job. Also, there are some indications that 18-year-olds are more mature and therefore more acceptable for employment. Since a large number of high school graduates are available, employers are more likely to choose them as better risks. Another difficulty is that the proportion of production jobs has decreased, while service jobs have increased proportionately. Schools should offer dropouts training courses for varying levels of service jobs. (31, pp. 35-36)

A-8 About two-thirds of the school dropouts had intelligence quotients which would probably have allowed them to complete senior high school. Their failure to do so may have represented a serious loss of potential craftsmen who might have qualified for apprenticeship or other training for skilled occupations. (88, p. 4)

A-9 Until 1957 in Britain, boys and girls dropping out of school at 15 had easily found employment, and wages for young people had been rising. By 1962, however, there might be more problems for the young, since the post-war baby boom group would then be leaving school and looking for work. (91, p. 3)

A-10 A survey of young persons in New York State in 1957 showed that of those who were in the labor force, 12 per cent of the men and 6 per cent of the women, ages 14 to 19, were unemployed, as were 8 per cent of the men and 3 per cent of the women, ages 20 to 24. (93, p. 3)

Dropout Rates*

Annual Rates

A-11 At Austin High School, Austin, Texas, 5.2 per cent of the total school enrollment left during the 1958 fall semester. (47, p. 205)

A-12 Of the total number of pupils enrolled in Massachusetts high schools during 1951-52, 6 per cent dropped out that year. If transfers are excluded the figure would be closer to 5 per cent. (54, p. 49)

A-13 The dropout rate for high school students in DeKalb, Illinois, was 4.42 per cent annually during the school years 1956-57 and 1957-58. (57, p. 74)

A-14 Six per cent of all the students enrolled in the Rochester, New York, high schools at the beginning of the school year 1960-61 left school during that year. (60, p. 9)

Longitudinal Rates: National Estimates

A-15 About 7.5 million young people entering the labor force in the sixties will not have completed high school, and 2.5 million will not have completed grade school. (5, p. 13)

A-16 In the United States, a large proportion of the dropping out occurs before the end of high school, whereas in Australia the dropping out occurs primarily in the final high school years. (8)

A-17 In 1960, 35-40 per cent of the students who entered high school in the United States failed to graduate. It was predicted that of the 10,249,000 enrolled high school students in 1960, 4 million would drop out before completion of graduation requirements. (16, pp. 1-2)

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*For an explanation of annual and longitudinal rates, see page 12 of Part I: Commentary.

A-18 For every 1, 000 fifth-graders in 1924-25 (the potential graduates of 1932), 612 entered ninth grade and 302 graduated from high school. For every 1, 000 fifth-graders in 1948-49 (potential graduates of 1956), 863 entered ninth grade and 581 graduated. The percentage graduating rose consistently during this period except for a slight decline in the 1944 and 1946 graduating classes. (29, p. 20)

A-19 In the United States only 41. 2 per cent of the boys and girls who enter high school eventually graduate. (40, p. 20)

A-20 Nationally, only slightly more than one-half of all pupils who entered fifth grade in 1946 finished high school. Less than two-thirds of those who were enrolled in ninth grade in 1950 remained through twelfth grade. (58, p. 5)

A-21 In a 1951-55 study, it was estimated that one-third of all students who enter secondary school in this country will drop out before graduating. (85)

A-22 The United States Office of Education reported that of every 1, 000 students who entered ninth grade in 1928-29, only 492 graduated; of every 1, 000 students who entered ninth grade in 1952-53, 673 graduated. While 71. 7 per cent began their senior year, 4. 4 per cent dropped during their senior year. (96, p. 1)

Longitudinal Rates: State and Local Comparisons

A-23 In Minnesota, between 55 and 65 per cent of the 17- and 18-year-olds were completing the work needed for graduation. In Australia, on the other hand, only 14 per cent of this age group were completing high school. (8)

A-24 Of 432 Quincy, Illinois, sixth-grade students in 1951-52, (potential graduates of 1958), 138 (32 per cent) were dropouts. If those who stayed in school until graduation, but did not graduate due to insufficient credits, had been called dropouts, there would have been 152 (35 per cent) dropouts for this age cohort. (14, p. 15)

A-25 In Flint, Michigan, 55 per cent of the students who had been ninth-graders in 1939 eventually graduated. In 1954 in the same high school, 74 per cent graduated, an increase of almost 20 per cent. (18, p. 532)

A-26 In an Atlanta, Georgia, high school, only one out of four who enter remain to graduate. (The type of high school was not specified.) (21, p. 56)

A-27 In a Midwestern city, 42 per cent of all the boys and 34 per cent of all the girls who entered sixth grade in 1951 dropped out of school before graduating. (37, p. 30)

A-28 In Utica, New York, over a period of several years, 65 per cent of the boys and girls entering the Utica Free Academy and the Thomas R. Proctor High School graduated. (40, p. 20)

A-29 The percentage of the eighth-grade enrollment of 1951-52 which graduated in 1955-56 was calculated for each state. The figures ranged from 43.4 per cent in Mississippi to 93.1 per cent in Wisconsin. The median was 65 per cent. New York State ranked fourteenth with 69.7 per cent. (58, p. 2)

A-30 It was estimated that 25 per cent of those entering ninth grade in Michigan annually would not remain to graduate. (62, pp. 53-54)

A-31 There is an extreme variation in dropout rates from state to state. In 1954, Wisconsin lost only 20 pupils for every 100 fifth-graders, while Georgia lost 77 per 100 fifth-graders. (81, pp. 141-42)

A-32 Of 12,855 seventh-graders in 1954-55 in 90 selected school districts in New York State, the percentages still in school at each grade level were: 99.6 per cent at the end of Grade 7, 98.1 per cent at the end of Grade 8, 95.1 per cent at the end of Grade 9, 90.9 per cent at the end of Grade 10, 86.8 per cent at at the end of Grade 11, and 82.9 per cent before graduation in 1960. (96, p. 4)

SECTION B

SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF DROPOUTS

Sex of Dropouts

National Figures

B-1 The Office of Education reported that in 1944-45 there were 428,792 more girls than boys in high school, despite the fact that there were more boys than girls ages 10 to 19 in the population. During this year, there were only 86 boys for every 100 girls in high school. From 1919 to 1945, the number of boys never equaled the number of girls enrolled in high school. This is, therefore, an old problem. (84)

B-2 In a 1951-55 study, the school holding power was greater for girls than for boys in 14 large United States cities. In Class A cities (200,000 to 1 million in population), 65.4 per cent of the girls and 60.2 per cent of the boys remained until the end of their fourth year in high school. In Class B cities (more than 1 million), the figures were 60.7 per cent for girls and 49.5 per cent for boys. (85, p. 9)

B-3 In all the areas of the United States which were studied, more girls than boys graduated from high school, and more boys than girls dropped out. (88)

Local Comparisons

B-4 In a group of 247 eighth-, ninth-, and tenth-grade dropouts in a small Georgia city in 1953-56, 59.1 per cent were boys. (12)

B-5 A larger percentage of boys than girls in an age cohort in Quincy, Illinois, withdrew from school before graduation, but the difference was not statistically significant. (14, p. 21)

B-6 In Nebraska City, Nebraska, a larger number of boys than girls left school before graduation. (19, p. 16)

B-7 In a sample of 1,360 midwestern youth who left school during 1945-46, 54 per cent were male and 46 per cent were female. (25, pp. 23-24)

B-8 In a midwestern city, 42 per cent of the boys and 34 per cent of the girls in an age cohort dropped out of school without graduating. (37, p. 30)

B-9 At all class levels in a midwestern community in 1941-42, there were more boys than girls who had not completed high school, although the difference was greatest in Class IV (the second lowest social class). (41, p. 330)

B-10 Of those who left high school during the first semester of the 1958-59 school year in Austin, Texas, 64 per cent were boys and 36 per cent were girls. (47, p. 205)

B-11 Sex was not significantly correlated with dropping out or graduating from school in an Illinois city. (51)

B-12 Of the 900 dropouts from the Rochester, New York, public schools in 1960-61, 56 per cent were boys and 44 per cent were girls. (60, p. 9)

Racial and Ethnic Background*

B-13 Race was a non-significant factor in distinguishing dropouts from graduates in Ithaca, New York, and New Haven, Connecticut. (35)

B-14 Of the students who left high school in Austin, Texas, during the fall semester of one school year, 18 per cent were Latin Americans, although this ethnic group comprised only 10 per cent of the fall enrollment in the school. (47, p. 206)

B-15 Race was not significantly correlated with dropping out or graduating from school in an Illinois city. (51)

*Refer to page 13 of Part I: Commentary.

B-16 Ethnic-racial background was of little importance as a factor in dropping out of school in Chicago. Of all students who entered high school, 73 per cent graduated. Of the students of German background, 64 per cent finished high school, as did 55 per cent of the Polish children. (These two percentages were significantly different from the overall percentage, but the latter is due to the low socio-economic status of the Polish families.) Of the Dutch and Italian children, 79 per cent graduated, and 65 per cent of the Negroes finished school. (These were not significantly different from the overall percentage.) Social class was not controlled in any of these comparisons. (82, p. 12)

Birthplace

B-17 In a sample of 1,360 youth who left school during the 1945-46 school year in five midwestern communities, 83 per cent had been born in the state where they had last attended school and the remainder had been born outside the state of their present residence. (25, pp. 23-24)

B-18 Of all dropouts from the Rochester, New York, public schools in 1960-61, two-thirds (67 per cent) had been born in that city or the surrounding county. Another 12 per cent had been born elsewhere in New York State, 10 per cent in the southern part of the United States, 5 per cent elsewhere in the United States, 2 per cent in Puerto Rico, and 4 per cent in foreign countries. Those early school leavers who were born in the South were of significantly lower intelligence and left school at a lower grade and earlier age than dropouts from the Rochester area. (60, pp. 22-27)

B-19 In a study of youth who withdrew from the Syracuse, New York, public schools between 1945 and 1949, it was found that 80 per cent had been born in that city, 16 per cent had been born elsewhere in New York State, and only 4 per cent had been born outside the state. (67, p. 2)

Residence

Size of Community

B-20 There was no relationship between town and rural residence and proportion of youth who dropped out of school in an Illinois community. (41, p. 329)

B-21 A national study in 1951-55 indicated that smaller cities had greater holding power than larger cities. In Class A cities (200,000 to 1 million) 62.9 per cent of those who entered ninth grade in 1951 were still in school at the end of the twelfth grade. In Class B cities (more than 1 million) the figure was 54.7 per cent. These percentages referred to all who remained after voluntary and involuntary dropouts, (including transfers) were excluded. If only voluntary dropouts were excluded, the holding power for the smaller cities would be 71.5 per cent and for the larger cities 62.0 per cent. (85, p. 7)

Distance from School

B-22 A 1946-50 survey indicated that students who resided in or close to school districts in Buffalo, New York, had a better chance of graduating than those who did not. Those who lived within walking distance were more likely to graduate than those who had to ride a bus. (13, p. 84)

B-23 In the Maryland counties surveyed, one-half of the 322 Negro dropouts were living 11 miles or more from school. (56, pp. 120-21)

Ecological Area

B-24 Controls and dropouts in Quincy, Illinois, were matched on Index of Status Characteristics; one of the four factors involved in the index was residence. When this factor was taken alone, however, it was found that fewer dropouts than controls came from the higher social areas and more came from the lower social areas. (14, p. 26)

B-25 As class level (based on ecological area of residence) decreased, the percentage of youth 16 or 17 years old who were not attending school increased steadily. Only 1.8 per cent of Class I (the highest class) youth and 26.0 per cent of Class IV youth were not in school, but 42.6 per cent of Class VI (the lowest class) youth had dropped out. (23, p. 178)

B-26 Dropouts and a sample of non-dropouts were found, in general, to be scattered throughout Austin, Texas, except for a certain clustering of dropouts in one low-income area characterized by substandard housing and mixed nationalities. (47, p. 209)

Occupations of Parents and Social Status

Parental Occupations

B-27 Fathers of youth who left rural Louisiana high schools in their junior and senior years were likely to be farm laborers or wage workers. (10)

B-28 In one high school in a small Georgia city, students whose parents were professional, managerial, agricultural, clerical, or sales workers dropped out in less than expected proportions in the eighth, ninth and tenth grades. Students whose parents were unemployed, retired, or unskilled laborers dropped out in greater proportions than could have occurred by chance. (12, p. 4)

B-29 Occupational level of a student's family was of little significance in distinguishing between graduates and non-graduates in Buffalo, New York. (13, p. 84)

B-30 In five midwestern communities, most of the fathers of 1,360 school dropouts in 1945-46 worked in factories; the mothers were in sales or clerical work or were working in a restaurant. Thirty-five per cent of the mothers worked. (25)

B-31 Neither the occupational status of the principal wage earner nor the activity of the mother was significantly related to dropping out or graduating from school in an Illinois city. (51)

B-32 Only 8 per cent of the parents of elementary school dropouts in an Illinois city held jobs that were not semiskilled or unskilled. (52, p. 269)

B-33 Two-thirds of the dropouts from rural and urban high schools for Negroes in Maryland were of low economic status. (56, p. 120)

B-34 At least 70 per cent of the high school dropouts in DeKalb, Illinois, were from homes where the breadwinners held unskilled jobs; the rest of the dropouts came from homes where the breadwinners held semiskilled jobs. (57, p. 74)

B-35 The rank order correlation between father's occupation and percentage of high school students finishing school in Chicago was .59. This correlation was significant at the .05 level of confidence. Father's occupation was deemed to be a factor in dropping out, but was considered less important than intelligence quotient. (82, pp. 14-16)

B-36 Father's occupational level was significantly related to persistence in high school in Iowa. The child of an unskilled laborer was nine times more likely to drop out than the child of a professional man. Only .5 per cent of the dropouts were from professional homes as compared with 23 per cent from unskilled laborers' homes. (89)

B-37 Most of the parents of Tucson, Arizona, dropouts were common laborers (37 per cent) or skilled laborers (41 per cent). The remainder of the parents were evenly divided between housewives, unemployed, recipients of public welfare support, and business persons. (98)

Other Measures of Social Status

B-38 The majority of rural Louisiana high school dropouts were from the lower social classes. (10)

B-39 Warner's Index of Status Characteristics was used to rank the families of youth in Quincy, Illinois. Dropouts were of significantly lower social status than stay-ins. Only 1 per cent of dropouts but 12 per cent of stay-ins were in upper and upper-middle classes; 10 per cent of dropouts and 31 per cent of stay-ins were in lower-middle class. The lower-lower class, on the other hand, accounted for 47 per cent of dropouts and only 20 per cent of stay-ins. However, 50 per cent of the lower-lower and about 70 per cent of the upper-lower class youth did graduate. There were statistically significant differences between early (younger than 16 years old) and late (older than 16-1/2 years old) dropouts on the variable, social class. The late dropouts were consistently of higher social status, with the exception of the early dropout girls. (14, pp. 20-24)

B-40 In a midwestern city, more than half of the dropouts in an age cohort came from the lower-lower class. (37, p. 30)

B-41 In a small Illinois community in 1941-42, a larger proportion of lower-class youth than upper-class youth had dropped out of school before graduation. In the two highest social classes, I and II, all of the youth of school age were in school. In Class III, 8 per cent of the youth had dropped out. In Class IV, on the other hand, 41 per cent were out of school, and in Class V, almost all, 89 per cent, were out of school. Those from the lower classes not only dropped out of school more frequently, but also left at a lower grade level. In Class III, all youngsters completed the eighth grade and 11 of the 12 withdrawees went to high school. In Class IV, 92 per cent completed eighth grade and 46 per cent started high school. In Class V, 57 per cent finished eighth grade. (41, pp. 330-32)

Education of Parents

B-42 In a sample of 88 Syracuse, New York, dropouts, 90 per cent of the males and 91.5 per cent of the females had dropout parents. (6, p. 141)

B-43 The parents of Louisiana high school dropouts had achieved lower educational levels than the parents of youth still in school. (10)

B-44 In a small Georgia city, the frequency of students actually withdrawing was expressed as a ratio to the frequency expected in terms of the proportion in the student population. The ratios for the various classifications of years of parental education completed were:

Parents completed 1-4 years of schooling	1.08
Parents completed 5 or 6 years of schooling	3.15
Parents completed 7 years of schooling	4.86
Parents completed 8 years of schooling	.92
Parents completed 1-3 years of high school	.39
Parents completed high school	.01
Parents attended college 1 or more years (no withdrawal observed) (12, p. 4)	.00

B-45 The educational level of a youth's family was of little significance in differentiating between graduates and non-graduates in Buffalo, New York. (13, p. 84)

B-46 One of three factors which influenced the educational patterns of youth in New Haven, Connecticut, was that parents tended to educate their children as they had been educated or somewhat better. (23, pp. 184-85)

B-47 Differences in the educational level of the parents of regular and continuation students of Stockton and Fresno, California, were significant at the .05 level. The mean grade level was 8.65 for fathers of continuation students and 9.85 for fathers of regular students. Mothers of continuation students had a mean grade of 9.43 and mothers of regular students, 10.44. (28)

B-48 In a small midwestern community, the educational background of the parents was the most significant factor in an adolescent's continuation in or withdrawal from school. In Class IV (the second lowest social class), 22 per cent of the fathers of in-schoolers had completed at least one year of high school as compared to only 12 per cent of the fathers of dropouts. (41, p. 335)

B-49 Only 4.7 per cent of the fathers and 6.1 per cent of the mothers of Negro dropouts in Maryland were high school graduates; however, 13.2 per cent of the fathers and 21.0 per cent of the mothers of graduates had graduated from high school. (56, p. 121)

B-50 Junior high school was the modal educational attainment of the parents of the 1945-49 dropouts in Syracuse, New York. (67, p. 2)

B-51 More parents of dropouts than of persisters failed to complete high school in Iowa. Neither parent of 67 per cent of the dropouts had graduated from high school; the corresponding figure for persisters was 38 per cent. Of the dropouts, 85 per cent had at least one parent who did not finish high school; 57 per cent of the persisters had one parent who did not graduate. These differences were significant at the .05 level. (89)

Family Size and Sibling Position*

B-52 The size of family was of little significance in distinguishing between graduates and non-graduates in Pine Hill High School, Buffalo, New York. (13, p. 84)

B-53 In Quincy, Illinois, among controls and dropouts matched on the Index of Status Characteristics, dropouts more frequently than controls (43 per cent and 24 per cent, respectively) came from families with five or more children and less frequently (19 per cent of dropouts and 39 per cent of controls) from families with only one or two children. (14, p. 30)

B-54 School leavers of Nebraska City, Nebraska, came from homes averaging 4.03 children, compared to a 2.76 average for graduates. (19, p. 16)

B-55 The youngest and the oldest children of a family are the least likely to withdraw from school before graduation, according to a study in a metropolitan area. (20)

*Refer to page 13 of Part I: Commentary.

B-56 In a sample of 1,360 dropouts in midwestern small towns and cities, one-quarter came from families of seven or more children. Another 26 per cent came from families of five or six children. Thus, more than half of the dropouts were from fairly large families. Almost one-third (32 per cent) were from relatively small families of one to three children. The remaining 17 per cent reported four children in the family. (25, p. 21)

B-57 In a sample of 350 secondary school boys in England, with social class controlled, boys from small families preferred to remain in school until a later age than did boys from large families. Views attributed by these boys to their parents regarding length of time they should stay in school fell into the same pattern. (36, p. 68)

B-58 In a midwestern city, first-born children and children from small families left school less frequently than did other children. Perhaps this was because they received greater parental attention. (50, p. 279)

B-59 In Tucson, Arizona, the dropouts' average family size was six, which is above the national family average. (98)

Family Type*

Broken Homes

B-60 In Miami, Florida, 81 per cent of the dropouts' parents were living together. (15, p. 32)

B-61 Early school leavers of Nebraska City, Nebraska, came more often from homes in which both parents were not present than did graduates. (19, p. 16)

B-62 Only 71 per cent of a sample of midwestern dropouts lived with both parents, as compared with a national average of 81 per cent. On the other hand, 27 per cent of the dropouts lived with one parent or with a relative, as compared with the national figure of 16 per cent. (25, pp. 19-20)

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*Refer to page 13 of Part I: Commentary.

B-63 Continuation students in Stockton and Fresno, California, were matched with a group of regular students on scholastic aptitude, sex, grade, age, and father's occupation. More continuation students than regular students came from broken homes (significant at the .05 level). (28)

B-64 Dropouts and in-schoolers in Austin, Texas, were matched on intelligence (measured by the California Test of Mental Maturity). Of the dropouts, 45 per cent came from broken homes, that is, they were not living with both of their natural parents; 28 per cent of the in-schoolers came from broken homes. This difference was significant at the .05 level. (47, pp. 208-209)

B-65 Fifty-two per cent of the elementary school dropouts surveyed came from homes broken by death or divorce. Only 40 per cent lived with both parents. (52, p. 269)

B-66 Sixty per cent of all Rochester, New York, dropouts came from apparently intact homes. There were no differences in home characteristics between sexes or between those of high and low measured intelligence. (60, p. 27)

B-67 Twenty-four per cent of Evansville, Indiana, dropouts came from homes broken by death or divorce. (78)

B-68 In Iowa, 22 per cent of the dropouts and 11 per cent of the graduates came from broken homes (difference significant at the .05 level). (89)

B-69 Thirty-one per cent of Tucson, Arizona, dropouts came from broken homes. (98)

Other Family Characteristics

B-70 In Utica, New York, 41 per cent of the dropouts' families had an absent or economically "disadvantaged" parent, that is, disabled, unemployed, or retired. (1, p. 9)

B-71 Dropouts in a midwestern community tended to have siblings who were also dropouts. Although 45 per cent of the in-school group's older siblings completed high school, only 2 per cent of the dropouts' older siblings did so. (41, p. 335)

B-72 More than one-third of all Rochester, New York, dropouts came from families who were recipients of public or private welfare assistance. Girls were more likely than boys to have come from these families. Families of more than one-half of all dropouts who were born in the South had received private or public relief. Forty-three per cent of the dropouts came from families in which there was some record of anti-social behavior, that is, crime or delinquency. Almost one-fourth of all dropouts came from families with histories of both welfare assistance and crime or delinquency. (60, pp. 41-48)

Home Atmosphere and Family Attitudes Toward Leaving

B-73 In Indianapolis, Indiana, mother's attitude was related to scholastic achievement among dropouts and graduates when sex, age and intelligence quotient were controlled. (4)

B-74 Parents of dropouts in rural areas of Louisiana participated less actively in school and placed a lower value on high school education than parents of non-dropouts. It is suggested that the dropout problem can be understood as an instance where the functional requirements of the dropout's family or of the school are actually dysfunctional for the school system. It is functional for the family if the dropout conforms to their low educational norms by leaving school. Also, such factors as economic limitations or strange standards of behavior in school may cause students to drop. The latter are elements in the school which are dysfunctional for the school system as a whole. (10)

B-75 In Quincy, Illinois, controls more often than dropouts had parents who were strongly opposed to their children's leaving school (60 per cent and 12 per cent respectively). Dropouts' parents, on the other hand, were either indifferent to their children's dropping out (30 per cent) or did nothing to prevent it (36 per cent). (14, pp. 62-63)

B-76 In Nebraska City, Nebraska, parents were opposed to their children's leaving school (63 per cent), indifferent (18 per cent), favorable (4 per cent), and let the child decide (15 per cent). (19, p. 17)

B-77 Three factors influenced the educational patterns of youth in New Haven, Connecticut: (1) financial ability of family to pay for attendance at private institutions, or, at lower levels, to keep children in the public schools; (2) tendency of parents to educate their children as they had been educated, or somewhat better, and (3) differential evaluation of occupations as socially acceptable or unacceptable by parents. The school appears to be perpetuating the status of some children by feeding them into occupational pursuits characteristic of the levels from which they come. (23, pp. 184-85)

B-78 In Detroit, Michigan, positive attitudes of parents toward education, high school, and teachers were significantly related to keeping dropouts in school until an older age. (26)

B-79 More than 60 per cent of California continuation boys said their parents made no comment regarding their leaving school. More continuation than regular boys reported their parents had high aspirations for them. More regular (46 per cent) than continuation students (25 per cent) reported strict parental supervision of their social life. (28)

B-80 Parental pressures to stay in school were felt more by middle class boys than by working class boys in England. Middle class boys felt their parents would like them to leave at an average age of 16.8; working class boys felt their parents would like them to leave at an average age of 16.3. (36, p. 68)

B-81 Questionnaires returned from high school dropouts and transfers (73 girls and 146 boys) in Syracuse, New York, indicated that 22 girls and 67 boys doubted their parents were in favor of their leaving, 32 girls and 38 boys said their parents were not in favor. (49)

B-82 In a midwestern city, middle class children were taught early that life is a series of hurdles to be overcome. Mothers were constantly manifesting an interest in the performance of their children. Lower class mothers emphasized staying out of trouble and evading life's hurdles. Most of the dropouts' parents seldom took an active interest in the performance of their children at school. (Most of the dropouts were from the lower class.) (50, pp. 276-77)

B-83 In Maryland, three-fourths of Negro dropouts and one-third of Negro graduates reported having no reference books in their homes. Although 90 per cent of the graduates reported having newspapers in their homes, only 70 per cent of the dropouts' families received newspapers. Forty-five per cent of the dropouts and 73 per cent of the graduates reported having a quiet room for study at home. (56, p. 121)

B-84 Of 99 boys and 95 girls who left school from 1945-49 in Syracuse, New York, 68 boys and 45 girls reported their parents had disapproved of their dropping out. One boy and four girls said their parents were not interested, and the rest had parents who acquiesced. (67, p. 29)

B-85 In Evansville, Indiana, dropouts' homes were rated according to information obtained from home-room teachers, counseling staff, and cumulative records: 19 per cent were considered "good," that is, parents cooperated with the school and gave encouragement to students; 47.1 per cent were rated "weak," that is, parents, though living together, gave no cooperation or encouragement; and 24 per cent had been broken by divorce or death. No report of home conditions was given for 9.6 per cent. (78)

B-86 Middle class children normally do better in school in almost all respects than lower class children. Even in the lower grades the lower class child is disadvantaged. Differences might be due to advantages the middle class child has in his home life. His parents help and encourage him to do well in school; he is exposed early to abstract thinking and can acquire an abstract vocabulary. In school, then, he is able to do well and he is given the praise needed to encourage further success. His success accumulates.

The lower class child, on the other hand, starts with the disadvantages of lack of verbal and conceptual skills and lack of a positive orientation to school in his home. His failure in school accumulates until he is too far behind to catch up. Consequently, he may decide to leave before graduation. (83)

SECTION C

PROFILE OF THE DROPOUT IN THE SCHOOL SETTING

Age at Time of School Leaving*

National Figures

C-1 In a national study, 16 years was the single age at which most dropping out occurred. A substantial number of dropouts were as old as graduates. (88)

C-2 Of 10,000 early school leavers, 10 per cent withdrew from school before they were 16 years old; 34 per cent left when they were 16; 27 per cent were 17; 17 per cent were 18; and 12 per cent were 19 years or older. (95, p. 99)

State and Local Comparisons

C-3 In Quincy, Illinois, girls were more likely than boys (32 per cent and 17 per cent, respectively) to leave before they were 16 years old; 43 per cent of the boys and 39 per cent of the girls left when they were 16.

Dropouts were divided into three groups on the basis of age: early (younger than 16), middle (16-16.5 years old) and late (older than 16.5). There were no statistically significant differences between early and late dropouts on personality and ability scores, but there were consistent trends. Among boys, early dropouts tended to have higher personality and lower ability scores. Among girls, on the other hand, early dropouts tended to have lower personality scores and higher ability scores. Late dropouts were consistently of higher social status than early or middle dropouts except that early girl dropouts were somewhat higher in social status than would be expected (differences statistically significant). (14, pp. 16-20)

C-4 In a metropolitan public high school in 1952-53, the common age for high school dropouts was 16. (20)

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*Refer to page 14 of Part I: Commentary.

C-5 These factors were significantly related to keeping Detroit pupils in school until an older age: out-of-school employment, participation in extracurricular activities, sense of belonging in the high school situation, school spirit, participation in out-of-school activities, definite career plan, desire to complete high school, and favorable attitudes of parents toward education, high school, and teachers. The following factors were related to students dropping out at an early age: elementary school failures, absences in the ninth grade, low scholastic aptitude, and discipline problems. (26, p. 289)

C-6 In a midwestern community, out-of-schoolers in the lowest social classes had left school at a younger age than out-of-schoolers in the middle classes. One-third of youngsters in Classes IV and V (two lowest classes) who quit school did so before age 14. Sixty-four per cent of 129 Class IV dropouts and 75 per cent of 204 Class V dropouts left before 16, the legal age limit for dropping out. In Class III, however, almost all of the 12 dropouts left after reaching age 16. (41, p. 331)

C-7 In DeKalb, Illinois, 44 per cent of the dropouts left during their sixteenth year, the minimum legal age for withdrawal from school. (57, p. 74)

C-8 Average age of the Rochester, New York, dropout when he withdrew from school in 1960-61 was 17.5 years. Boy dropouts were older than girl dropouts (difference significant at the .01 level). (60, pp. 10-11)

C-9 Of Pennsylvania secondary school dropouts, 39.9 per cent of the boys left at age 17, and 36.8 per cent left at age 16. (64, p. 82)

C-10 In Evansville, Indiana, in 1955-56, the critical age for school leaving was 16, the minimum legal age for withdrawal from school. More than half of 208 boy and girl dropouts left school at this age. An additional 22 per cent of these school leavers quit at age 17, 7 per cent at 18, and 13 per cent at 19. (78)

Grade Attained*

C-11 In Quincy, Illinois, the majority of dropouts occurred in Grades 9, 10 and 11 (32 per cent, 23 per cent, and 28 per cent, respectively), but 11 per cent left school after reaching Grade 12. Remainder of the dropouts occurred in Grades 6, 7 or 8. Boys were more likely than girls to leave in Grades 8 and 9, despite the fact that girls were more likely than boys to leave before reaching age 16. This was due to the greater grade retardation of boys. (14, pp. 17-18)

C-12 Pupils who were overage for their grade left school at an earlier grade level than those who made normal progress while in school, in Nebraska City, Nebraska. Of 100 dropouts interviewed, 53 per cent first considered leaving school in the ninth or tenth grade. (19, pp. 7, 16)

C-13 Of the 7, 177 Chicago dropouts who had entered high school in 1946, 20 per cent left in their freshman year of high school, 40 per cent in their second year, 30 per cent in their third year, and 10 per cent in their fourth year. (24, pp. 22-23)

C-14 Distribution for grade last attended by 1,360 midwest dropouts was: seventh grade, 3 per cent; eighth grade, 10 per cent; ninth grade, 26 per cent; tenth grade, 37 per cent; eleventh grade, 19 per cent; and twelfth grade, 5 per cent. Boys and girls differed little in grade last attended, although boys were more likely than girls to leave after ninth grade and girls were more likely than boys to leave after eleventh grade. (25, p. 24)

C-15 In six out of the eight Illinois counties surveyed, enrollment decreased considerably each succeeding year as the 1948-49 first-grade class progressed through elementary school. This decreased enrollment was assumed to be due to a large number of elementary school dropouts. (39, p. 62)

C-16 In a midwestern town, youngsters from lower social classes tended to leave school earlier than did those from higher social classes. Of 204 dropouts in Class V (lowest class), only 57 per cent finished eighth grade. In Class III, on the other hand, 11 of the 12 withdrawees had entered high school. (41, p. 332)

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*Refer to page 15 of Part I: Commentary.

C-17 More than 21 per cent of the total number of dropouts in one Illinois city occurred before the youngsters entered ninth grade. (52, p. 267)

C-18 Sixty-eight per cent of high school dropouts in DeKalb, Illinois, occurred in Grades 10 and 11. (57, p. 74)

C-19 The median grade level attained by Rochester, New York, dropouts was 9.7. Ninety per cent of all dropouts completed the seventh grade, and 18 per cent completed eleventh grade. Boy and girl dropouts were not significantly different in last grade completed. Dropouts with intelligence quotients ranging from very low to very high were compared in regard to grade attained. No distinguishable differences were observed, except those dropouts with very high I.Q.'s reached higher grade levels than did others. (60, pp. 12, 21)

C-20 In one Indiana city, seniors accounted for 16 per cent of all high school dropouts during the fall semester of 1955-56. Juniors accounted for 38 per cent; sophomores, 29 per cent; and freshmen, 17 per cent of all dropouts. (78)

C-21 In Iowa, a large majority of boys (69 per cent) who dropped out of high school did so in the ninth and tenth grades, but more girls (60 per cent) dropped out in the tenth and eleventh grades. Sixty-four per cent of all dropouts occurred in Grades 9 and 10, and 36 per cent in Grades 11 and 12. (89)

C-22 Nationally, approximately one out of every three dropouts did not continue beyond the eighth grade, another third left school after completing ninth grade, and almost four-tenths left after completing the tenth or eleventh grades. (95, p. 100)

Transition Periods

C-23 In Quincy, Illinois interviews, dropouts more often than controls expressed dissatisfaction with school, but among both groups, junior high was the least popular and senior high the most popular. Dropouts who disliked school said they began to dislike it in junior and senior high school.

The "Who Are They" Sociometric Test, administered in the sixth grade, did not discriminate between future dropouts and their peers, but in ninth grade, according to the same test, potential dropouts were observed to be very different from their peers. When the Behavior Description Chart was administered in the sixth grade, teachers were not able to differentiate dropouts from controls on aggressive, withdrawn, and leadership tendencies.

Perhaps the anti-social characteristics attributed to dropouts by peers and teachers develop between elementary and high school, that is, in junior high school, or the frustrations already existent are first manifested in junior high. Differences might be due to age differences or to the change from the residential elementary school, where the classes are fairly homogeneous, to the one central junior high school. This latter hypothesis is supported by other data that indicate that dropouts liked elementary school far better than junior high and experienced increased incidence of failure and frustration in junior high. The reactions of dropouts to junior high school might have contributed to the anti-social characteristics observed by peers and teachers at the ninth-grade level. (14, pp. 44, 47, 76-77, 83)

C-24 In a midwestern community, almost one-half of the dropouts left during summer vacation; another 23 per cent left within the first six weeks of the fall term. There were no class or sex differences in time of year when withdrawal occurred. (41, p. 333)

The School as a Factor

Type of School

C-25 In Quincy, Illinois, dropouts tended to come from schools of poorer neighborhoods. Of the 138 dropouts, 43 per cent came from the lowest status schools. Of the 101 controls who matched the dropouts on status level, 31 per cent came from the lowest status schools, as did 25 per cent of all the controls (127). Controls more frequently came from middle and high status schools. (The status of a school was rated on the basis of the status level of the people served by the school.) (14, pp. 26-27)

C-26 In New York City, 62 per cent of students in academic schools and 37 per cent of students in vocational schools remained until graduation. A similar situation existed in Chicago. (15, p. 32)

C-27 In a midwestern city, lower class pupils attending predominantly middle class schools, which had a strong emphasis on achievement, were much less likely to leave school than children of lower social status who attended predominantly lower class schools. This suggests that in lower class schools the role expectation is to drop out. (50, p. 278)

Counseling of Potential Dropouts

C-28 A common complaint among dropouts in California was the lack of sufficient attention from teachers. (9)

C-29 In Nebraska City, Nebraska, 16 of the 100 early school leavers interviewed had discussed their plans to withdraw with school personnel. (19, p. 17)

C-30 Of 232 Massachusetts principals who replied to a questionnaire, 34 reported that school leavers were counseled by guidance teachers before leaving; 21 said the principal had a conference with pupils and parents before the dropout occurred; and only two reported briefing the dropouts on employment opportunities before they left. (54)

School Transfers

C-31 Almost four-fifths of the students who left school before entering eleventh grade in a Georgia city high school had transferred from one school to another while still at the elementary level. (12, p. 4)

C-32 In Nebraska City, Nebraska, one-half of the dropouts and 23 per cent of the graduates had attended at least two schools. (19, p. 16)

C-33 Of 1,360 midwest dropouts, 79 per cent entered first grade in the same school system from which they dropped out. Only 9 per cent did not attend any elementary grade in the local school system. Transfers from one school to another within the same system, however, must have been fairly frequent. Of 1,138 dropouts, 17 per cent transferred five or more times, 16 per cent transferred four times, 56 per cent transferred two or three times, and 11 per cent transferred once or not at all. (25, pp. 23-24, 28)

C-34 Continuation and regular students in California did not differ significantly in regard to length of time lived in the community. More continuation boys were born in the community. (28)

C-35 Tenure of residence was not a significant factor in distinguishing graduates from dropouts. (34)

C-36 Only 13 per cent of DeKalb, Illinois, high school dropouts had received their education in that city only; this indicates that the dropouts were a fairly mobile group. (57, p. 74)

Intelligence and Aptitude*

National Figures

C-37 A nationwide study showed that 70 per cent of school dropouts had I.Q.'s above 90. (75, p. 2)

C-38 One-third of the dropouts in a United States Department of Labor study had I.Q.'s below 85, which experience has shown to be usually too low for acquiring adequate reading ability necessary to manage school subjects. On the other hand, the failure of the remaining two-thirds of these dropouts to complete high school may have represented a serious loss of potential craftsmen. (88, p. 8)

*Refer to page 14 of Part I: Commentary.

C-39 High school graduates were more likely than dropouts to have average and above-average scores on the Otis Mental Ability Group Test. Distribution of scores for graduates was: less than 85, 10 per cent; 85-89, 11 per cent; 90-109, 63 per cent; and 110 or above, 16 per cent. Distribution for dropouts was: less than 85, 31 per cent; 85-89, 15 per cent; 90-109, 48 per cent; and 110 or above, 6 per cent. (95)

State and Local Comparisons

C-40 Most of the youth who withdrew from secondary school in Illinois were intelligent enough to do high school work since only 5 per cent of the boys and 1 per cent of the girls had I.Q.'s below 75. These dropouts did seem to have below-average intelligence, however; 44 per cent of the boys and 38 per cent of the girls had I.Q.'s below 95. (3, p. 350)

C-41 Graduates and non-graduates of one high school in Buffalo, New York, showed little difference in measured intelligence. (13, p. 84)

C-42 Verbal, spatial, and reasoning sections of the Chicago Primary Mental Abilities Test were administered to the total age cohort in Quincy, Illinois. Dropouts were of significantly lower intelligence than the stay-ins. For example, 75 per cent of the dropouts and 37 per cent of the stay-ins were in the lower half of the distribution. However, dropouts did cover a wide range of intellectual ability; 4 per cent of the dropouts were in the highest intellectual quartile. (14, p. 22-23)

C-43 In St. Paul, Minnesota, dropout students were definitely of lower mental ability; 71 per cent had I.Q.'s below 100.

In Miami, Florida, 52 per cent of the dropouts had normal I.Q.'s of 90 to 100, 43 per cent were below normal, and 5 per cent were above normal. (15, p. 32)

C-44 Differences in measured intelligence between high school dropouts and graduates of Flint, Michigan, were not very great. The Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Test was used.

The 209 dropouts had a mean I.Q. of 92.27; the 259 graduates had a mean I.Q. of 101.64. (18, p. 533)

C-45 The California Short Form Test of Mental Maturity was administered to 95 dropouts and 200 non-withdrawing students from one metropolitan public high school. Dropouts had significantly lower scores on both the language and non-language parts of the test, but the difference was greatest on the language part. The mean language I. Q. for non-withdrawals was 94.57 and for withdrawals, 82.81. The mean non-language I.Q. for non-withdrawals was 92.68, as compared to 86.51 for the dropouts. These differences were significant at the .01 level. (20, p. 194)

A selective process may operate within the school to eliminate the intellectually inferior. (21, pp. 56-57)

C-46 The I.Q. distribution of 1,084 youth who left school in the Midwest during the 1945-46 school year was: above 114, 5 per cent; 105-114, 12 per cent; 95-104, 22 per cent; 85-94, 25 per cent; and below 85, 36 per cent. More than three-quarters of those who left school in the seventh or eighth grades had I. Q.'s below 85, as compared with less than one-fifth of those who left in the eleventh and twelfth grades and less than one-third of those who left in the ninth and tenth grades. Although those who left before entering tenth grade were grouped at the lower end of the I.Q. distribution, those who left after entering the tenth grade were spread fairly evenly over the scale. (25, p. 34)

C-47 Continuation and regular students in California, matched by sex, grade, scholastic aptitude, father's occupation, and age, were compared on performance on the Terman-McNemar Test of Mental Ability. The mean intelligence score of continuation students was 89.83 and that of regular students was 91.13. These scores should not be considered representative of the continuation or regular population, because the students were matched scholastically. The two groups did not differ significantly in their performances on the Differential Aptitude Test, which measured vocational aptitudes of mechanical reasoning and clerical speed and accuracy. Since some regular students had scores similar to those of continuation students, mental ability should be considered only a partial factor in dropping out of regular school. (28)

C-48 One author, a school teacher, believes that the mass return of World War II veterans to school and their academic success upon return proved that many dropouts are educable. (33)

C-49 In-school and out-of-school youth from Class IV (the second lowest class) in a midwestern community were compared on measured intelligence. In-schoolers had significantly higher I.Q. scores than out-of-schoolers. (41, p. 335)

C-50 Dropouts in Austin, Texas, had a lower mean intelligence score than students who attended trade school. (47)

C-51 As a group, the intelligence of dropouts in a midwestern city was below average, although some dropouts had higher intellectual ability than some students who graduated. (50, p. 278)

C-52 Mental ability was one of the five factors most significantly related to dropping out or graduating from school in an Illinois city. (51, pp. 197-98)

C-53 Of 134 Negro dropouts from rural and urban high schools in Maryland, only 3.7 per cent had I.Q.'s of 100 or above, while 49.1 per cent of the graduates from the same schools had I.Q.'s above 100. The median I.Q. of graduates was 20.3 points above that for dropouts. (56, p. 121)

C-54 Sixty-three per cent of DeKalb, Illinois, dropouts had I.Q. scores of 90 or above. Girl dropouts had higher I.Q. scores and better academic records than boy dropouts. (57, p. 74)

C-55 In a study in Rochester, New York, gross ACE (American Council on Education Psychological Examination for High School Students) scores were used for indication of general intelligence; where not available, Pitner, Stanford, Binet, Kuhlmann-Anderson, or Otis scores were converted to a range comparable to ACE. Dropouts measured below the normal school standard, but the difference diminished when residence was held constant. A majority of all dropouts scored well within the average range, however, and 9 per cent were found in the upper quarter of the test scores of all Rochester students. Boy dropouts scored significantly higher than girl dropouts, but this difference disappeared when birthplace was held constant. (60, pp. 12-13, 24)

C-56 A New York study, covering six years, showed that 13 per cent of dropouts had I.Q. scores above 110. (75, p. 2)

C-57 Of 174 Evansville, Indiana, dropouts, 66 per cent scored below 96 on the Otis Test of Mental Ability, and 23 per cent scored 80 or below. (78)

C-58 Intelligence quotient was one of the two most important factors in dropping out of high school in the greater Chicago area. The rank order correlation between I.Q. and percentage finishing school was .91. This correlation was significant at the .01 level. Intelligence quotient was correlated with socio-economic level, as measured by father's occupation, although I.Q. seemed to be more important than socio-economic level as a factor in dropping out. (82, p. 16)

C-59 Intelligence quotient and scores on the Iowa Test of Educational Development were two of the five factors best differentiating between boy dropouts and persisters. These factors did not differentiate between girl dropouts and persisters. (89)

C-60 L.A. Van Dyke and K.B. Hoyt studied youth who entered ninth grade in Iowa in 1950, 1951, and 1952. The average I.Q. of those who stayed in school through the twelfth grade was 106.4 and of those who dropped out 96.6. There were sex differences for the dropouts, but not for the stay-ins. The mean I.Q. of female dropouts was 99.4 and of male dropouts, 93.8. (89 and 96, p. 2)

C-61 A study was conducted by Glen Stice in which an academic aptitude test was given to a representative sample of 9,700 public high school sophomores in March, 1955. By the fall of 1959, 90 per cent of the most able third of the students, 80 per cent of the middle third, and 69 per cent of the least able third had graduated. (96, p. 2)

C-62 The New York State Holding Power Project studied 12,855 youth who entered the seventh grade in 1954-55, and an account was kept of all who subsequently withdrew. Intelligence quotients were available for 1,593 of the 1,831 dropouts. Of these, 12 per cent had scores of 110 or above; 26 per cent, 100-109; 32 per cent, 90-99; 20 per cent, 80-89; and 10 per cent, below 80.

The median I.Q. for the total group was 111 and for the dropouts, 96. The ninetieth percentile for the total group was 129 and for the dropouts, 112. The tenth percentile for the total group was 93 and for the dropouts, 79.

Boys with an I.Q. of 110 or above were more likely than other boys to leave because of dislike of school and less likely to leave due to subject failure and family need. Among girls with an I.Q. of 110 or above, marriage was a more prevalent reason for dropping out than for the less capable girls. These more capable girls were also less likely to leave because of dislike of school, failure, or desire to have their own income and a job. (96, pp. 5-7)

Reading Ability

C-63 The California Reading Achievement Test (Advanced) was administered to all students at the ninth-grade level in a small Georgia city. The mean reading comprehension score for students who dropped out of the ninth and tenth grades was 7.9; the mean for those who remained in school through the tenth grade was 8.9. (12)

C-64 In Miami, Florida, dropouts' performance in reading and achievement tests was normal. (15, p. 32)

C-65 Dropouts and a sample of non-dropouts from Grades 10 and 11 in Austin, Texas, matched by intelligence quotient, were compared on the Progressive Reading Achievement Test. The dropout sample was inferior in reading but not significantly so. When intelligence was controlled, however, the difference was statistically significant. (47, pp. 207, 208)

C-66 Reading level was one of the five factors most significantly related to dropping out or graduating from school in an Illinois city. (51, pp. 197-98)

C-67 Interviews with dropouts indicated that poor reading ability was one important factor in the decision to leave school. More than three times as many poor readers as good readers dropped out of school before graduation. Students who had trouble in reading but who remained in school did not have significantly higher reading scores than poor readers who dropped out. The former stayed in school, however, because of parental encouragement, desire to graduate, interest in sports, or interest in certain subjects. (63, p. 14)

C-68 California or Iowa Silent Reading Test scores were obtained for 159 of the dropouts in an Illinois city. Only 21.4 per cent of these were retarded in reading level three or more years, and slightly more than 22 per cent were retarded one year. The remainder were rated as normal or better. (78)

C-69 In the greater Chicago area, reading ability, as measured by the Cooperative English Test Form C1-R, was not related to dropping out or staying in to any appreciable degree. (82, pp. 11-12)

Curriculum Chosen

C-70 Midwestern school leavers were enrolled in the following courses prior to withdrawal from school: elementary, 3 per cent; commercial, 20 per cent; home economics, 20 per cent; shop, 24 per cent; general, 25 per cent; and academic, 8 per cent. (25, p. 43)

C-71 In a Chicago high school, the percentages of students who graduated in each curriculum were as follows: academic, 88 per cent; business, 75 per cent; general, 57 per cent; technical, 75 per cent; and trade, 51 per cent. The group choosing each curriculum did not differ in ethnic-racial background, grade points, age of entrance, or reading ability, but they did differ in sex. Although the groups with the highest percentages graduating had the highest mean intelligence quotients, this factor did not seem to account for the differences. There was a positive correlation between percentage graduating and percentage with extra-curricular activities, and this latter factor might have accounted for the variation. (82, pp. 13-14)

C-72 In seven communities, about three-fifths of all male graduates had taken four or more industrial courses, but only one-fifth of the male dropouts had taken such courses. Two-thirds of girl graduates had taken four or more commercial courses, as compared with 15 per cent of girl dropouts. This difference was partly due to the fact that such courses were usually offered only in high school, after some dropouts had already left. (88, pp. 5, 23)

Academic Records

C-73 If students receive low grades, they will view themselves as failures. Likewise, they will be very much aware of their rejection by their fellow students. These are potent factors in leading students to dislike school and to drop out. Dropouts' perceptions of themselves in this respect usually coincide with the school's perception of them. (2, pp. 16-17)

C-74 Most schools give grades (or marks), which are made to assume a high order of importance. Thus, they become evidences of success or failure. Each school in the Illinois study reported marks of their dropouts: 80 per cent of the boys and 66 per cent of the girls who withdrew had marks below C; only 1 per cent of the boys and 4 per cent of the girls had marks above C. Most of the dropouts had not achieved even average academic success. (3, pp. 348-49)

C-75 Mathematics, English, reading, and spelling were found to be difficult by the California dropout boys. (9)

C-76 Louisiana high school dropouts had lower grades and had failed more subjects than those still in school. (10)

C-77 Quincy, Illinois, dropouts had poorer academic records than controls, even during elementary school. Nineteen per cent of the controls and only 4 per cent of the dropouts were rated in the upper third of their class in elementary school, but 32 per cent of the dropouts and 13 per cent of the controls were rated in the lower third of their class.

A grade point average was obtained for each student for his work while in high school. Even though dropouts and controls were matched on intelligence quotient and Warner's Index of Status Characteristics, 50 per cent of the controls and 7 per cent of the dropouts were in the upper half of the grade point distribution for the entire class. (14, pp. 37-40)

C-78 Early school leavers experienced three times as many subject failures as did graduates in Nebraska City, Nebraska. (19, p. 16)

C-79 The average grades of 381 early school leavers in elementary, junior, and senior high school were studied. In elementary school 47 per cent received an average grade of A or B; 47 per cent, C; and 6 per cent, D. In junior high school the distribution was not much different: 42 per cent received A or B; 48 per cent received C, and 10 per cent received D. In senior high, however, there was a large increase in the number receiving low marks. An A or B was given to 12 per cent, C to 48 per cent and D to 40 per cent. More than half of those receiving D in senior high were those who had a C-average in elementary school. The majority of those who had received A's and B's in elementary school were receiving C's and D's in senior high. (25, p. 41)

C-80 Elementary school failures and low scholastic aptitude were significantly related to an early dropout age in a 1951 study of Detroit dropouts. (26, p. 289)

C-81 Academic grades in major subjects were not significant in distinguishing graduates from non-graduates. (35)

C-82 Out-of-school and in-school youth in Class IV were compared regarding adjustment in school. Out-of-school youth received a higher proportion of C's and D' s and fewer A's and B's than did in-school youth. (41, p. 334)

C-83 Ninety per cent of all dropouts from regular classes were averaging D or poorer in grades at the time of leaving. Boys were averaging poorer marks than were girls; 95 per cent of boys and 84 per cent of girls were doing D work, (60, p. 20)

C-84 In Chicago, low grades were not an important factor in dropping out of high school, although dropouts did have somewhat lower grades. Averages were calculated on the basis of A=5 to E=1. The grade point average for graduates was 3.41, and the average for dropouts was 2.88. More than a third of those who finished school had averages lower than 2.88; some had averages as low as 2.70. (82, p. 12)

C-85 Dropouts as a group could be differentiated from persisters as a group on the basis of mean I.Q. scores, high school grade point averages, elementary school scholastic records, and composite scores of the Iowa Test of Educational Development. These differences were significant at the .01 level. These intellectual factors may act more forcefully on boys than on girls in terms of leading to withdrawal from the secondary school. (89)

Grade Retardation and Grade Failures

C-86 Of the boys and girls who entered the ninth grade but later withdrew from school in Illinois, about half were of normal age, that is, approximately 14. Fifty-three per cent of the boys and 41 per cent of the girls were overage, however, indicating they had probably repeated grades in elementary school. They had been labeled failures even before beginning high school. (3, p. 349)

C-87 The average California dropout was four grades below where he should have been normally. The dropout's dissatisfaction with school was attributed partly to this fact. (9)

C-88 In Quincy, Illinois, dropouts were retarded in grade level much more frequently than were controls and all stay-ins. A total of 25 per cent of the dropouts, 8 per cent of the controls, and 10.5 per cent of the stay-ins were retarded at least one year. No control or other stay-in was retarded for more than one year; seven dropouts were. In each group most retardation in grade level occurred in the elementary grades. (14, pp. 36-37)

C-89 In a Nebraska report, 65 per cent of the early leavers had repeated at least one grade at the elementary level, and 24 per cent had repeated grades at both the elementary and secondary levels. Pupils who were overage for their grade left school at a lower grade than dropouts who were not retarded in grade. (19, pp. 16-17)

C-90 Dropouts who withdrew from a metropolitan public high school during the eighth, ninth and tenth grades were older than stay-ins in these grades. (20)

C-91 Of 1,018 midwest early school leavers, 523 (52 per cent) had failed one or more grades while in school. Of the 523 who had failed, 69 per cent had repeated grades in elementary school, and 36 per cent had failed in junior high. Only 9 per cent (49) failed while in senior high school. (25, p. 36)

C-92 Grade level retardation was the most significant factor in distinguishing dropouts from graduates in Ithaca, New York and New Haven, Connecticut. (35)

C-93 In a midwestern community, 10 per cent of the in-school group and 34 per cent of the out-of-schoolers had repeated one or more elementary grades. (41, p. 334)

C-94 The number of elementary school grades failed was one of the five factors most significantly related to dropping out or graduating from school in an Illinois city. (51, pp. 197-99)

C-95 All elementary school dropouts were retarded at least one year in grade level and 84 per cent of them were retarded at least two grades. Only 1 per cent of those who eventually graduated from high school had been retarded in elementary school. (52)

C-96 Almost two-thirds of dropouts who had attended regular classes in Rochester, New York, schools were retarded at least one year in their grade attainment, and more than one-quarter were at least two years below the appropriate grade level. Boys were more seriously retarded in grade level than girls; about one-third of the boy dropouts and only one-fifth of the girl dropouts were at least two years retarded. This difference was significant at the .01 level. (60, pp. 18-19)

C-97 The 110 boys who withdrew from school in Grades 9, 10 and 11 had an average grade retardation of two years, as did the 44 girls who left in Grades 9 and 10. The 41 girls who dropped out of the eleventh and twelfth grades were one year behind the normal level. (79, p. 138)

C-98 Nationally, 85 per cent of the dropouts were at least one grade behind the normal grade level for their age group when they left school. (88 and 95, p. 100)

School Attendance and Absence

C-99 During elementary school years, dropouts in Quincy, Illinois, did not differ much from controls in number of absences. During the last two years of high school, however, dropouts' absences increased a great deal, while controls' absences decreased an equal amount. The last two years were crucial ones, then, in terms of attendance habits. (14, p. 43)

C-100 Only 18 per cent of graduates and 49 per cent of early school leavers in Nebraska were absent an average of 11 days or more per year. (19, p. 17)

C-101 Thirty-five per cent of Chicago dropouts were chronic absentees, and more than 50 per cent had truancy records. (24, p. 22)

C-102 In five midwestern communities, the number of days attended per year during elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school was calculated for dropouts. In elementary school and junior high, only 2 per cent and 3 per cent respectively, of the dropouts attended school less than 100 days per year; in senior high the figure was 27 per cent. The percentage attending school 100 to 169 days per year remained approximately the same from elementary through senior high school. The percentage attending school 170 or more days per year was: 48 per cent, elementary school; 41 per cent, junior high; 18 per cent, senior high. (25, p. 33)

C-103 Tardiness and attendance were not significant factors in distinguishing graduates from dropouts in Ithaca, New York, and New Haven, Connecticut. (35)

C-104 Out-of-schoolers (dropouts) had been absent from school much more frequently than in-schoolers in a small midwestern community. (41, p. 334)

C-105 In an Iowa study, the average rate of absenteeism for dropouts was 8.5 per cent, or 15 days out of 180; the average rate for persisters was 3.1 per cent, or 6 days out of 180. Differences between boys and girls were not significant; neither were differences between youth from schools of different sizes. (89)

Extracurricular Activities

C-106 High school dropouts participated in fewer social activities and were less likely to be officers or leaders than non-dropouts in rural areas of Louisiana. (10)

C-107 Graduates had participated in extracurricular activities more frequently than dropouts from the same high school in Buffalo, New York. (13)

C-108 Although dropouts and controls (i.e., graduates) participated in the same kinds of extracurricular activities, they differed in the number participating. All controls and only 74 per cent of dropouts participated in some way in the extracurricular program of the schools. (14, p. 41)

C-109 In Nebraska, twice as many graduates as dropouts participated in extracurricular activities. (19, p. 17)

C-110 In one trade and one technical school in Detroit, participation in extracurricular activities was significantly related to the students staying in school until a later age. (26)

C-111 Two of the five factors most significantly related to dropping out or graduating from school in an Illinois city were extracurricular activities in high school and elementary school participation. (51, pp. 197-98)

C-112 Three-quarters of the elementary school dropouts did not participate in any formal elementary school activity. Genuine participation probably ceased quite early. (52, p. 269)

C-113 Seventy-nine per cent of 208 Indiana dropouts avoided extracurricular activities. (78)

C-114 In a Chicago high school, participation in extracurricular activities was the factor most related to dropping out or staying in. No one student who dropped before completing his third year of high school had engaged in one activity. Of those students who finished school, however, 89 per cent had participated in at least one extracurricular activity. The rank order correlation of percentage engaged in extracurricular activities with percentage finishing school was .95, significant at the .01 level. (82, p. 17)

C-115 One of the six factors best differentiating between dropouts and persisters in Iowa schools was the number of different, extracurricular activities in which the students participated. (89)

Social and Personal Adjustment in School

C-116 In Indianapolis, Indiana, a significant difference was found between graduates and dropouts from a technical high school on the California Mental Health Analysis, but not on the Rotter Incomplete Sentence Blank. Both tests measured social adjustment. The girls showed a better overall adjustment than the boys in both groups. (4)

C-117 Three tests of personal adjustment were administered to the age cohort: The California Test of Personality, administered in sixth grade; the California Psychological Inventory, administered in tenth grade when half of the dropouts had already left school; and the Sentence Completion Test, administered at the end of tenth grade. On all three tests, dropouts had statistically significantly lower scores than either the total population of their grade or controls matched with the dropouts on intelligence and social status. Dropouts were lower in social adjustment ratings and self-adjustment ratings. Dropouts' personalities were marked by a lack of respect for others. (14, pp. 31-35)

C-118 On the "Who Are They" Sociometric Test, administered in Grade 9, dropouts were significantly characterized by their peers as withdrawn, lacking friends, and lacking leadership behavior, especially the last two. (14, p. 76)

C-119 On the Behavior Description Chart administered in Grade 9, teachers saw dropouts as aggressive, somewhat withdrawn, and lacking in leadership behaviors. The results were significant with intelligence and status controlled. (14, p. 77)

C-120 All dropouts and controls with scores on the California Psychological Inventory, the "Who Are They" Sociometric Test, and the Behavior Description Chart were included in the total population for a three-way analysis of variance. Each group of dropouts and controls was divided into four subgroups: high intelligence--high status; low intelligence--low status. Each of the dependent variables from the above three tests was tested for the variance it contributed to the three independent variables (dropoutness, intelligence, and socio-economic status), to their simple interactions, and to the triple interaction of all three. The .05 level of confidence was used.

Dropouts were significantly inferior to controls on measures of poise, ascendancy, and self-assurance (as used in the California Psychological Inventory), with socio-economic status and intelligence controlled. Socio-economic status contributed to the variance somewhat. Dropouts were significantly inferior to controls on maturity and responsibility, with intelligence and socio-economic status held constant. Dropouts were less mature in social situations and less able to command a degree of intellectual efficiency than control students. Scales of dominance, sociability, self-acceptance, sense of well being, self-control, and tolerance (as measured in the California Psychological Inventory) did not have significant main effects on the independent variables. (14, pp. 72-75)

C-121 Dropouts were divided into three age groups: early (less than 16), middle (16 - 16 1/2) and late (older than 16 1/2). Consistent trends existed between early and late dropouts on personality and ability scores, but they were not statistically significant. Early dropout boys tended to have higher personality scores and lower ability scores than late dropout boys; early dropout girls tended to have lower personality and higher ability scores than late dropout girls. (14, pp. 19-20)

C-122 The Semantic Differential Test, which asked the student to describe the concepts of self, mother, father, student, work, competition, success, love, faith, and imagination, was administered to the dropouts and controls of Quincy, Illinois. Dropout boys described school more positively than did dropout girls, whereas girls described school as more active. Dropout boys seemed to have valued school more highly but found no active role for themselves within the school setting.

Controls felt more positive toward self, father, and school, than did dropouts. Controls saw themselves and school as more active than did dropouts, whereas dropouts viewed competition as more active than did controls.

The school environment seems to be a more valued milieu for students who remain than for those who drop out. The students who stay in can probably find a place for themselves. (14, pp. 64-68)

C-123 In interviews, dropouts more frequently than controls (67 per cent and 12 per cent, respectively) expressed a dislike for school. Junior high was the least popular among both groups, and senior high was the most popular. Those who disliked school said their dislike began in junior and senior high school. (14, pp. 44,47)

C-124 More dropouts than controls in Quincy, Illinois, had difficulty in getting along with their teachers (19 per cent of dropouts and 4 per cent of controls). A large percentage of the dropouts (70 per cent) did report, however, that they were able to get along very well with all their teachers. (14, p. 45)

C-125 Of 202 Nebraska dropouts, 14 per cent felt they were not accepted by their classmates while in school. (19, p. 17)

C-126 Attitudes of Indiana high school pupils from different income levels were more likely to vary on items in the questionnaire related to interpersonal relations than on items involving an objective appraisal of the school or school program. High and middle income pupils significantly exceeded low income pupils in the percentage who associated with fellow pupils outside of school. Low income pupils reacted significantly less favorably to their social life, to being liked by other pupils, and in their opinion of other boys and girls. (22)

C-127 Teachers of 1,360 midwestern early school leavers evaluated their former students in terms of whether or not several personal characteristics applied to them. More than half of the dropouts were judged as lacking initiative (72 per cent), lacking self-confidence (56 per cent), having an attendance problem (70 per cent), lacking skill in a tool subject (60 per cent), irresponsible (66 per cent), and having poor study habits (58 per cent). Only 30 per cent did not get along well with their teachers and others; the same percentage seemed unhappy or worried, acted immature, and lacked interest in school. A substantial number were easily discouraged (49 per cent), were secretive or exclusive (37 per cent), and did not participate in class (50 per cent). Only 17 per cent were judged to be aggressive, and only 24 per cent caused trouble in school. (25, p. 80)

C-128 In Detroit, the following factors were among those significantly related to postponing dropping out until a later age: having a sense of belonging in the high school situation, participating in extracurricular activities, participating in out-of-school activities, and having school spirit. Having a discipline problem was related to dropping out at an early age. (26, p. 289)

C-129 Eleven factors showed statistically significant differences between normal and anti-social dropouts in Detroit. The anti-social students (1) dropped out at a lower grade level than normal behavior students, (2) failed more subjects before dropping out, (3) were absent more frequently from school, (4) were more often rated as poor citizens, (5) less frequently came from a happy, well-adjusted home, (6) had out-of-school friends more often and spent more time with them, (7) less frequently got along well with others in the home, (8) less frequently got along well with students and teachers, (9) had a sense of belonging in the high school less often, (10) less often had school spirit, and (11) participated less frequently in out-of-school activities. (27, p. 596)

C-130 In California, a significantly greater number of regular students than of continuation students had close friends, but this result might have been related to the fact that the former had more time to cultivate these friends. (28)

C-131 Intelligence and social class were controlled for age cohort in one midwestern community in order to determine why, in a group of low status, low intelligence youth, some stay in school while others do not. Dropouts from this group found school and self to be less valuable than did the stay-ins. They stated their inability to cope with subjects and tended to rationalize that this was the consequence of the lack of teachers' support.

As a group, dropouts had below average social and personal adjustment and this contributed to their decision to leave school. They manifested tendencies toward isolation, rejection and defeat which, as borne out by the Sentence Completion Test, led to aggression, disrespect and refusal to accept others.

When a lower class, low I.Q. student stays in school it is invariably because he finds some social and academic satisfaction for at least part of his day. (50, pp. 278-279)

C-132 Sixty per cent of the elementary school dropouts surveyed were classified by their teachers as non-participants or isolates. (52, p. 269)

C-133 Of 208 Indiana dropouts, 56 per cent were poorly adjusted socially, but only 31 per cent were behavior problems. (78)

Other Social Behavior

C-134 In Quincy, Illinois, more dropouts (26 per cent) than controls (11 per cent) owned cars, although the two groups were matched on Warner's Index of Status Characteristics. (14)

C-135 More than half (54 per cent) of the Nebraska dropouts interviewed named as their best friend in high school a student who also did not graduate. (19, p. 17)

C-136 Continuation boys in California scored significantly higher than regular boys on going steady (76 per cent and 54 per cent, respectively); age they thought they were permitted to drink liquor (18 per cent as opposed to 20 per cent); number of boys who had begun to smoke (72 per cent and 34 per cent); and those who had begun to drink liquor (51 per cent and 35 per cent). (28)

C-137 Delinquency is 10 times higher among dropouts than high school graduates. (Source of finding not given.) (58)

C-138 School performance of youth in a high school in Selma, California, was related to driving or not driving cars. (Social class, grade level, and measured intelligence were not controlled.) Of the non-drivers, only 2.2 per cent dropped out, whereas 12.2 per cent of the frequent drivers dropped out. The non-driver group averaged fewer full-day or part-day absences, passed more courses, chose more academic curricula, and had higher grade point averages. (76)

Part-time Jobs

C-139 In Quincy, Illinois, more controls than dropouts (80 per cent and 40 per cent, respectively) held part-time jobs while in school. (14, p. 29)

C-140 In Detroit, out-of-school employment was significantly related to keeping pupils in school until a later age. (26)

C-141 In California, as many regular boys as continuation boys were employed. More regular boys than continuation boys who were unemployed wanted jobs. Continuation boys, however, held significantly more paid jobs and more full-time jobs. (28)

C-142 Nationally, 70 per cent of the graduates and 40 per cent of the dropouts had work experience either during summer vacation or during the school year--after school hours or on weekends. Fewer dropout and graduate girls reported this experience. Boys usually worked as laborers, sales clerks, or filling station attendants. Girls had such jobs as sales clerks and waitresses. About three-fifths of boy graduates and dropouts and over one-half of the girl graduates and dropouts who had worked reported their work experience had not helped them in finding jobs after leaving school. (88, p. 24)

Health

C-143 Some California continuation boys had a health problem. The need for corrective dental work ranked highest as a health problem. There was some degree of deafness, but vision was not worse than for regular school attenders of the same age.

The researcher attributed poor scholastic performance to the lack of good health. (9)

C-144 Health was a non-significant factor in distinguishing dropouts from graduates in Ithaca, New York, and New Haven, Connecticut. (35)

C-145 During interviews, only 5 per cent of the boys and 7 per cent of the girls in a national study gave health as their reason for leaving school. According to school records, 4 per cent of the males and 9 per cent of the females left for this reason. (88)

Reasons for Leaving or Staying In School *

National Reports

C-146 Nationally, the financial reason (to secure remunerative employment) was most frequently given for dropping out between the eleventh and twelfth grades. Two studies (not cited) indicated 60-70 per cent of the dropouts left for this reason. (58, p. 11)

C-147 Youth who voluntarily left high schools in 14 large cities of the United States between 1951 and 1955 gave the following reasons for leaving as officially recorded in school records: entering employment, 54.5 per cent; school failures or not interested in school, 16.9 per cent; inability to adjust, 7.5 per cent; married, 4.1 per cent; entering the Armed Forces, 3.3 per cent; needed at home, 3.1 per cent; and other, 10.4 per cent. (85, p. 15)

C-148 In a national study of 22,000 young people (including 9,500 dropouts), 1600 school leavers were interviewed. Major reason given for leaving school, according to the interviews, was dissatisfaction with school; 38 per cent of males and 32 per cent of females, or 25 per cent of the entire sample gave this reason. Dropouts' school records showed that 24 per cent of the men and 20 per cent of the women left for reasons of "adverse school experience."

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*Refer to page 15 of Part I: Commentary.

In the interviews, twenty-five per cent of the male and 12 per cent of the female dropouts gave work as their reason for leaving. According to school records, 22 per cent of the males and 13 per cent of the females left for this reason.

Three per cent of the boys and 27 per cent of the girls gave marriage as their reason for leaving. For the girls, this reason was second only to "adverse school experience." Perhaps boys who dropped out for purposes of employment might have done this as a prelude to marriage. According to the school records, 1 per cent of the boys and 21 per cent of the girls left for reasons of marriage.

Of the males, 7 per cent left because of adverse home circumstances, while 9 per cent of the girls left for this reason. School records showed that 3 per cent of the males and 5 per cent of the females left due to adverse home circumstances.

Only 5 per cent of the boys and 7 per cent of the girls gave health as their reason for quitting. According to the school records, 4 per cent of the males and 9 per cent of the females left for this reason.

In the interviews, 4 per cent of the girls and 6 per cent of the males said they left because they had reached age 16. According to school records, 18 per cent of the males and 15 per cent of females gave this reason.

Six per cent of the males gave military service as their reason for leaving. This figure is probably understated, since those in service at the time of the survey were not interviewed. According to school records, 14 per cent of the males and less than 5 per cent of the females left for this reason. (88 and 95)

C-149 In a series of pilot studies conducted by the United States Department of Labor, it was found that students with I.Q.'s of 110 or over (6 per cent of the dropouts), and those with I.Q.'s below 110 had dropped out for essentially the same reasons. Marriage, however, was more significant for the high intelligence group than for the low intelligence group. (96, p. 3)

State and Local Findings

C-150 In Buffalo, New York, reasons generally given by high school dropouts for failing to graduate were lack of guidance, lack of parental interest, lack of interest in school, failing grades, and narrow course of study. (13, p. 84)

C-151 Quincy, Illinois dropouts gave these reasons for quitting school in interviews: lack of interest, 21 per cent; academic failure, 20 per cent; poor social adjustment, 18 per cent; to get a job, 10 per cent; marriage and/or pregnancy, 9 per cent; teachers unfair or indifferent, 6 per cent; financial need, 5 per cent; don't know, 4 per cent; all others, 6 per cent.

Only 5 per cent of the dropouts interviewed clearly indicated they left school for financial reasons; 75 per cent asserted there was no financial necessity for leaving; and 20 per cent were unsure. More controls (most of whom were matched with the dropouts on Warner's Index of Status Characteristics) than dropouts (80 per cent and 40 per cent, respectively) held part-time jobs while in school. More dropouts (26 per cent) than controls (11 per cent) owned cars. During school and for at least six months after dropping out, dropouts showed less concern than controls for earning a living and becoming independent. Financial reasons, therefore, were probably not a major pressure forcing these dropouts out of school.

Dropouts did not see education as a means to vocational success as often as did controls. Controls obviously found satisfaction in remaining in school, while dropouts either lacked interest in school or were poorly adjusted socially. (14, pp. 28-29, 58, 61)

C-152 In interviews, Nebraska dropouts gave these reasons for leaving school: disliked or was not interested in school, 29 per cent; preferred work to school, 24 per cent; had trouble with a teacher, 20 per cent; wanted to, or had to, get married, 20 per cent; failure and low grades, 13 per cent; parents didn't believe in a high school education, 4 per cent; and other (19 different reasons), 1-3 per cent for each. (19, p. 17)

C-153 Some 957 midwestern voluntary dropouts gave the following frequencies of reasons of first importance in their decision to leave school:

Reasons Relating to School	
Preferred work to school	36 per cent
Not interested in school work	11
Couldn't learn and was discouraged	7
Failing and didn't wish to repeat a grade	6
Disliked a certain teacher	5
Disliked a certain subject	3
Could learn more out of school than in school	1
Financial Reasons	
Needed money to buy clothes and had to help at home	15
Wanted spending money	6
Personal Reasons	
Ill health	5
Friends had left school	3
Parents wanted youth to leave school	2
	100

(25, p. 50)

C-154 Less than one-third of 72 continuation boys in California gave financial motivation as their reason for leaving school. Therefore, this variable does not by itself explain much. (28)

C-155 Two frequently given reasons for leaving school--"financial" and "prefer to work"--cover up many factors which make youth unhappy in school, such as feelings of rejection, lacking someone who cares, accumulating retardation, and narrow curricula which seem to have no relevance to their present or future life. Another factor is mistaken notions about job opportunities. Parents of dropouts are not aware that conditions have changed and that unskilled, beginners' jobs are disappearing. (31, p. 35)

C-156 In questionnaires, Syracuse, New York, dropouts and transfers gave the following reasons for withdrawal from one high school: insufficient guidance, too little attention paid to the slow student, teacher-student relationships not uniformly satisfactory, new students feel school is unfriendly, students not sufficiently taught how to get along with one another, classes and classrooms too large, too much homework unmarked, industrial and trade classes lacking, too many required courses for students not planning to enter college, subjects not interesting, students lack personal funds, job placement services inadequate. (49, pp. 70-71)

C-157 Massachusetts principals replied that the reasons dropouts left their schools were, in order of frequency:

1.	Preferred work to school	2,441 dropouts
2.	Was not interested in school	1,251
3.	Needed money at home	621
4.	Parents wanted the youth to leave	346
5.	Was failing in school work	313
6.	Could not learn in school	300
7.	Ill health	274
8.	Wanted spending money	131
9.	Could earn more out of school	73
10.	Friends had left school	45
11.	Disliked certain subjects or teachers	31

The first, second, fifth, sixth, and ninth reasons were most frequent for boys. The third and seventh reasons were most frequent for girls. (54, p. 50)

C-158 Two most prevalent reasons for leaving school, according to interviews with Negro dropouts in Maryland, were pregnancy (20.9 per cent) and employment (16.6 per cent). Reasons accounting for 4-6 per cent of the dropouts in each case were: tired of school, lack of interest in school, economic reasons other than employment, personal illness, and a number of factors combined. School records and interviews with the dropouts themselves showed a marked disagreement in reasons for withdrawal. Reasons in school records were: over compulsory attendance age, unable to do high school work, and physical incapacity. No one source of reasons for dropping out is adequate. (56, pp. 119-122)

C-159 DeKalb, Illinois, dropouts reported on questionnaires these reasons, in order of frequency, for leaving: girls - dislike of school, marriage, failing grades, employment; boys - to get a job, dislike of school, failing grades. (57, p. 74)

C-160 Almost 40 per cent of all 1960-61 dropouts of Rochester, New York, left school with work permits. Only 6 per cent left with officially recorded reasons of health, home emergencies, or marriage. (60, p. 27)

C-161 Reasons for leaving school, as given by 100 dropouts in interviews, were: 39 per cent wanted to work, 30 per cent disliked school, 21 per cent reported their families needed financial aid, 16 per cent could not enroll in the curriculum they desired, 11 per cent were discouraged by failure and low marks, 7 per cent reported death of a parent, 7 per cent could see no value in school, 7 per cent disliked one or more teachers, 7 per cent were uninterested in school, 7 per cent felt out of place.

Reasons given by 100 high school graduates for staying in school were: 63 per cent felt a diploma was necessary to get a job and get ahead, 44 per cent liked their friends and associates, 40 per cent liked and enjoyed school, 40 per cent liked their subjects and courses, 38 per cent were influenced by both parents to remain in school, 38 per cent liked the activities, 36 per cent never thought of dropping out, 32 per cent were preparing for college, 20 per cent enjoyed athletics, 18 per cent desired to increase their knowledge, 15 per cent liked their teachers, 15 per cent were preparing for jobs, 14 per cent were influenced by their mothers to remain in school, 6 per cent had lots of fun, and 5 per cent were influenced by teachers and guidance counselors. (61, pp. 85-86)

C-162 In interviews, Syracuse, New York, dropouts gave these major reasons (in descending order of frequency) for leaving high school:

Reasons related to school--dissatisfaction with school, inability to discern relation between school subjects and future occupation, overage for their grade, inability to get along with teachers, inability to learn, failure of the school to offer suitable subjects, lack of sufficient credits for graduation.

Other reasons (personal)--lack of personal funds, lure of a job, family support, illness, feeling too poor in comparison with others in the class. (67, p. 2)

C-163 The 254 Evansville, Indiana, dropouts reported these reasons for leaving school: 85 disliked school in general, 83 needed money for some purpose, 36 needed encouragement, 25 (all girls) had been or were going to be married, 20 withdrew for ill health (either their own or a member of their family), 16 were not interested in certain subjects, 16 did not feel a part of the school, 10 were suspended, and 10 joined the Armed Services. (79, pp. 139-40)

C-164 The New York State Holding Power Project found that boys with an I. Q. of 110 or above were more likely than other boys to leave because of dislike of school and less likely to leave due to subject failure and family need. Otherwise, the two groups of boys, those with I.Q.'s above and below 110, gave essentially the same reasons for leaving school, such as dislikes teacher, prefers own job, and wants own income.

Of the girls with an I.Q. of 110 or above, the most prevalent reason for dropping out was marriage (78 per cent). Only 3 per cent of the less capable girls said that marriage was the reason they dropped out. Girls with high ability also were less likely to leave because of dislike of school, failure, or desire to have their own income and a job. (96, pp. 6-7)

SECTION D

POST-DROPOUT ATTITUDES AND EXPERIENCES

Reflections on Dropping Out

D-1 Six months after leaving school, dropouts in Quincy, Illinois, were asked if they would stay in or drop out if they had that choice to make again. Of 119 dropouts, 67 indicated they would stay in school, 41 said they would drop out again, 11 were unsure. (14, p. 47)

D-2 Of the 146 dropout or transfer boys from one school in Syracuse, New York, who returned a questionnaire, more than half said they would remain in school if they had another chance to do so. More boys than girls said they would remain if they had a second chance. (49)

D-3 Of the DeKalb, Illinois, dropouts who returned questionnaires (28 out of 72), most boys said they would like to have continued their education, while most girls did not regret leaving school. (57, p. 75)

Further Training After Leaving School

D-4 Of 87 dropouts interviewed in a Syracuse, New York, study in 1959-60 (two years after they dropped out), 20 indicated they were receiving more training. Thirteen of these were males. Of the 67 not receiving training, 49 indicated they wanted more training, while 18 did not. Most of the latter (two-thirds) were girls. (6, p. 160)

D-5 In a United States Department of Labor study, 1 out of 5 graduates reported post-high school training, but only half as many dropouts (1 in 10) had taken any training after leaving high school. Almost one-third of the boy graduates who reported any training had taken some college extension course; a smaller proportion reported training in some kind of mechanics. Boy dropouts concentrated on mechanics. Most girls, who had taken further training, graduates or dropouts, had taken commercial courses. (88, p. 38)

Evaluation of School Subjects in Terms of After-School Employment

D-6 Graduates and dropouts from an Indiana technical high school did not differ significantly in their estimation of the preparation they had received for employment. Both felt the preparation was inadequate. Unlike the graduates, however, dropouts felt that the time they spent in school was largely wasted. (4)

D-7 The two subjects most frequently listed as most helpful by a sample of 639 early school leavers were academic ones: mathematics (253 dropouts) and English (141 dropouts). Vocational courses were next in frequency: business subjects (111), shop subjects (98), home economics (88), and others, such as photography and journalism (45). Sciences and social studies were listed very infrequently (27 and 21 dropouts, respectively). Physical education was mentioned by six, and foreign languages were named by two dropouts. Vocational subjects headed the list of courses dropouts said they wished they had taken for their present job. Business subjects were mentioned by 216 dropouts and shop courses by 93. Mathematics was desired by 58. Home economics was mentioned by 41. Other unspecified subjects accounted for 103 more responses. (25)

D-8 Dropouts and transfers from Central High School, Syracuse, New York, were asked to what extent they were aided in their present jobs by their school training. (To answer this question, former students had to measure their education, in some cases too meager to be reliable, against what they lacked in job preparation.) Seventy-three girls and 143 boys responded to this question; approximately half of these were actual dropouts. Only 20 per cent of the girls and 13 per cent of the boys said their school training gave them direct preparation for their jobs; 18 per cent of girls and 28 per cent of boys said school gave them some training for their jobs; approximately one-third (29 per cent of girls and 30 per cent of boys) said school training helped them only in a general way; 23 per cent of girls and 17 per cent of boys said school helped them not at all. The remainder gave no answer to this question.

The same ex-students were asked which subjects they considered most valuable in their present work. Of the subjects they took, commercial subjects (19 boys and 11 girls) and English (23 boys and 9 girls) were considered most valuable. Boys frequently mentioned mathematics (18 times) and science (11 times). A total of 35 boys and 9 girls said none of the subjects they had taken was of any value in their present work.

When asked which subjects they did not take but now considered valuable in their present work, a large number answered "none" (36 boys and 7 girls). Commercial subjects were most frequently mentioned (17 boys and 13 girls), and industrial subjects were desired by 11 boys and 8 girls.

Of the subjects not offered at Central which the ex-students believed would have been helpful in their present work, commercial subjects (10 boys and 8 girls) and industrial subjects (15 boys and 1 girl) again ranked highest. "None" was given as an answer by 26 boys and 7 girls.

In answer to the foregoing three questions, the academic subjects of history, art, and music were almost never mentioned. A small number of boys, however, considered mathematics or sciences helpful or desirable, and English was quite frequently mentioned, especially by boys, as a subject which was of considerable value to them in their work. (49, pp. 37, 42)

D-9 Girls who dropped out of high school believed that courses in homemaking, business, English, and mathematics were or might have been most helpful to them. Boy dropouts listed industrial arts, mathematics, English, and social studies as helpful subjects. It is significant that English and mathematics, two academic subjects, were listed. (57, p. 74)

D-10 Two hundred high school students, half of whom had left school during their sophomore and junior years, were asked what subjects they considered valuable. Twenty per cent of the group indicated that history was the least valuable, mainly because the same fact was repeated frequently. Eighteen per cent indicated that general science was the least valuable, and 15 per cent named biology. Many complaints about science centered around students' impressions of the meaninglessness and technicality of the sciences. (71)

Vocational Plans

Aids in Vocational Planning

D-11 Only 8 per cent of 806 midwest dropouts who left in 1945-46 reported in interviews that a counselor had given them occupational advice; 5 per cent mentioned that a teacher had given them occupational advice; 37 per cent relied on friends; 50 per cent said that no one had given them advice on job choice. (25, p. 66)

D-12 Continuation students were influenced in their occupational choice by brothers, teachers, counselors, and girl friends more often than were regular students. (The two groups were matched on sex, age, grade, scholastic aptitude, and father's occupation.) (28)

D-13 Of 219 dropouts and transfers from one school in Syracuse, New York, who returned questionnaires, 54 boys and 15 girls said they had taken no subject that had helped them decide on a career. Commercial subjects (mentioned by 16 boys and 19 girls) were most helpful. Boys found two other subjects to be helpful: industrial courses (mentioned by 18) and mathematics (named by 14). History, art, music, and English were mentioned by very few.

These youth were also asked where they had received help with their occupational problems. Boys most frequently mentioned parents, relatives, and adult friends (56 boys), employers or supervisors (33 boys), workers on their present jobs (25 boys), and school counselors (24 boys). Sixteen boys said no one helped them. Girls most frequently mentioned parents, relatives and friends (29 girls), personal friends (14 girls), employers or supervisors (13 girls), and no one (12 girls). (49, pp. 38, 42)

D-14 Boys who left the Syracuse, New York, schools during 1945-49 listed the following subjects as most helpful in vocational planning and preparation: mathematics, English, shop work (including mechanical drawing), and science. Girls listed English, mathematics, commercial work, bookkeeping. English and mathematics, listed most frequently by each sex, were required academic subjects. Dropouts suggested the following areas would have helped them in vocational planning: more specific job training, information about occupations, guidance in choosing courses, advice on how to get along with people, and training in how to get a job. In order of frequency mentioned, the three most important sources of aid regarding vocational planning were school, parents, and friends. (67, pp. 3, 41)

Vocational and Income Aspirations

D-15 In a 1951 study, a career plan was a significant factor in postponing a pupil's leaving school until a later age. (26)

D-16 Continuation boys had higher financial aspirations than regular school boys. The mean for continuation boys in California was $124 per week, and the mean for regular boys was $105. This may indicate that either continuation boys were more realistic or they had higher financial needs. (28)

D-17 Job aspirations of the majority of both boy and girl graduates and dropouts were occupations which were easily within their reach. Boys wanted to be mechanics or welders or do some type of skilled manual work. Girls, graduates and dropouts. wanted to be secretaries. (88, p. 39)

D-18 Most dropouts in Tucson, Arizona, had interest in the manipulative occupations--mechanical, artistic, and clerical. Few had interest in the cogitative occupations--scientific, literary, and persuasive. (98, p. 91)

Labor Market Experience

Means of Securing a Job

D-19 Dropouts' methods of securing jobs were "on their own," through family members, and through "friends." Newspaper ads were also used. Of 88 dropouts interviewed, only 4 boys and no girls used the public employment agency. (6, p. 146)

D-20 In a Syracuse, New York, study, 73 girls and 146 boys who withdrew or transferred from one school reported the means by which they secured jobs. The most frequent response was "member of family, relative or friend," given by 27 girls and 59 boys. The next most frequent was "personal application while looking for a job," mentioned by 17 girls and 29 boys. Newspaper ads were used by 6 girls and 13 boys. Only 6 girls and 11 boys secured jobs through school authorities, and even fewer used employment agencies--private employment agencies were used by 4 persons and public employment agencies by 9. (49, pp. 31-32)

D-21 Of 900 youth who withdrew from Rochester, New York, schools in 1960-61, 28 per cent had registered with the State Employment Service; 12 per cent (109) were referred to a job by the agency, and 6 per cent (50) were actually placed on a job. Boys were significantly more likely than girls (32 per cent and 22 per cent, respectively) to have registered with the State Employment Service. The age of the dropout had little relation to registration with or placement by the service. Of those youth whose families had received public welfare assistance, 32 per cent had registered with the service. Of those youth whose families had not received assistance, 26 per cent had registered.

Of those girls who registered with the service, more than 4 out of 10 (43 per cent) were given an occupational classification by the agency of clerical and sales worker; 29 per cent were given a manual-unskilled classification; 28 per cent were classified as service workers. The majority of the boys were classified as manual-unskilled workers (64 per cent); 14 per cent were given clerical-sales classifications; 17 per cent received a mechanical classification. The rest were classified as service or agricultural workers. (60, pp. 29-37)

D-22 Most school leavers reported they found their jobs through personal applications or through friends and relatives. Comparatively low proportions claimed to have obtained their current jobs through the public employment service. (88, p. 31)

Length of Time Required to Find First Job

D-23 Of 73 girls and 146 boys who left or transferred from one Syracuse, New York, high school, and who returned a mailed questionnaire, 34 girls and 76 boys reported they immediately found a job after leaving school. (49, p. 29)

D-24 Of 28 DeKalb, Illinois, dropouts who returned a questionnaire, most boys reported finding a job within a month after leaving school, while girls took a longer time to find employment. (57, p. 75)

D-25 In a study of several areas throughout the United States, almost all boys who left school and remained in their own area entered the labor force, and about three-quarters obtained jobs fairly quickly. More than half of the graduates and two-fifths of the dropouts found jobs in less than a week. Ten per cent of dropouts (compared with 5 per cent of graduates) looked for a job for 14 or more weeks before finding one.

About 90 per cent of the girl graduates interviewed had entered the labor force, and more than half had found jobs in less than a week after starting to look. Only 70 per cent of the girl dropouts had ever entered the labor force, and of these, two-fifths had found jobs within a week after starting to look. (88, p. 5)

Part-time Work

D-26 A higher proportion of graduates than of dropouts worked no more than 40 hours per week. At the same time, more dropouts than graduates worked only part-time. (88, p. 33)

D-27 In a 1957 survey of New York State men and women 18 to 24 years old, it was found that of those in the labor force, approximately 19 per cent of men and 19 per cent of women were working only part-time (less than 35 hours a week). Of the men 20 to 24 years old who had work experience in 1956, 25 per cent had worked only part-time or intermittently during that year, and 24 per cent had worked only 27 to 49 weeks at full-time jobs. The figures were approximately the same for women 20 to 24 years old. Twenty-eight per cent of those with work experience in 1956 had worked only part-time or intermittently, and 21 per cent had worked only 27 to 49 weeks at full-time jobs. (93, pp. 1, 4)

Unemployment

D-28 In Utica, New York, dropouts had no greater inability than graduates in finding jobs, even considering the tight employment situation in the city. Dropouts had greater difficulty, however, in obtaining the type of work suitable to them and somewhat more difficulty in finding jobs. Dropouts, particularly those with low I.Q.'s, had difficulty in keeping jobs. (1, p. 10)

D-29 Of the 88 Syracuse, New York, dropouts interviewed approximately two years after leaving school, 57 per cent were employed, 17 per cent were unemployed, 26 per cent were not in the labor force. The breakdown by sexes was as follows: 73 per cent of males and 43 per cent of females employed, 20 per cent of males and 14 per cent of females unemployed, 7 per cent of males and 43 per cent of females not in the labor force. Only two of the dropouts had never had a job since leaving school. (6, pp. 132-33, 141)

D-30 The national rate of unemployment for young people without high school diplomas is almost 30 per cent, compared with a national average of 6 per cent for the labor force as a whole. (30, p. 6)

D-31 Boys and girls who left school between 1945 and 1949 in Syracuse, New York, were interviewed. (Their median age at the time of interview was 19.) Of the 99 boys, 77 per cent were employed, 4 per cent were in the Armed Services, and 11 per cent were looking for work. Of the 95 girls, 55 per cent were employed, 4 per cent had their own business, 22 per cent were housewives, 10 per cent were idle and not looking for work, one girl failed to respond, and the rest, 8 per cent, were looking for work. (67, p. 1)

D-32 Nationally, the unemployment rate remains at about 13 per cent for graduates two or three years out of school. For dropouts in the same age group, the unemployment rate fluctuates between 20 and 30 per cent. (75, p. 2)

D-33 Of the total United States labor force, young people have a consistently higher rate of unemployment than any other age group. For example, in April, 1957, nearly 10 per cent of those in the

14-19 age group and nearly 7 per cent of those 20-24 were unemployed, compared with less than 4 per cent of the 25-34 age group. These rates vary only in degree, not in kind, from year to year. Lack of training and work experience are the prime factors in the high rate of unemployment of youth.

More than half of the graduates but less than a third of the dropouts experienced no unemployment or less than a week of it. One reason for the difference was that dropouts took a longer time to get a job when they first left school.

The proportion of boys in the labor force who were employed at the time of the interview ranged from 3-9 per cent of the graduates and from 10-27 per cent of the dropouts in various communities. Among girls in the labor force, 1-12 per cent of the graduates and 10-50 per cent of the dropouts were unemployed at the time of the interviews.

Differences were greater for girls than for boys. Differences between boy dropouts and graduates ranged from 5 to 24 percentage points, while differences between girl dropouts and graduates ranged from 9 to 38 percentage points.

Among boy dropouts, unemployment appeared to be related to the level of their education, i. e., the proportion of those unemployed decreased steadily with each higher grade completed. Age, in addition to more schooling, apparently gave boys an advantage in getting and keeping jobs. Those who reached the higher grade levels were older than other boy dropouts. While one-third of those who finished ninth grade were 17 or over, more than 90 per cent of those who completed eleventh grade were 17 or over. (88, pp. 1, 8, 35; 95, p. 103)

Number of Jobs Held

D-34 Two years after leaving school, more than one-half of the Syracuse, New York, dropouts had worked on only one or two jobs. Females were more likely than males to have had only one or two jobs. (6, p. 150)

D-35 A large number of early school leavers were about equally divided among those who had held one job since quitting two or three years before (36 per cent), two jobs (32 per cent), and three or more jobs (32 per cent). (25, p. 68)

D-36 Of 182 dropouts and transfers, 19 girls and 50 boys reported that they were working at the same job they had obtained after leaving school; 42 girls and 71 boys said they were not working at the same job. (49, p. 29)

D-37 At the time of the interviews in 1956 and 1957 (from one to four and one-half years after graduating or leaving), 60 per cent of the 4000 interviewees (graduates and dropouts) had the same job they had when they first started work.

Fewer dropouts than graduates had been in the labor force at one time or another. Ninety-five per cent of the boy graduates and 91 per cent of the girl graduates had worked at some time, as compared with 91 per cent of the boy dropouts and 70 per cent of the girl dropouts. (88, pp. 26, 31)

Types of Jobs Held

D-38 The majority of the 1959-60 male dropouts of Syracuse, New York, were in unskilled, semiskilled, and service occupations two years after leaving school. Over 50 per cent of the female dropouts in the labor force were in service occupations; 44 per cent of the female dropouts were not in the labor market. (6, p. 141)

D-39 Jobs obtained by dropouts and controls in Quincy, Illinois, were ranked 1 (low) to 5 (high) on the basis of the skill and responsibility involved in the work. Although controls and dropouts were matched on intelligence and on socio-economic status, high school graduates (controls) obtained considerably better jobs on the average than did their dropout peers. Almost one-half of the dropouts held the lowest category jobs, while over one-half of the controls were in job category number 2. A year later, both groups had improved, but the control group (excluding the controls still in college) was still in a superior position. (14, pp. 48-50)

D-40 Jobs held by Flint, Michigan, young people from the class of 1944 were rated as follows: 1 - unskilled worker, 2 - semiskilled, 3 - skilled, 4 - business and managerial, 5 - professional and high executive. Mean score of dropouts was 2.6 and of graduates, 3.2. (18, p. 532)

D-41 The first jobs of midwestern youth who left school in 1945-46 were invariably sales and clerical jobs and factory work. (25, p. 69)

D-42 Ninety-nine boys and 95 girls who left Syracuse, New York, schools during 1945-49 were later interviewed regarding their work experience. Jobs most frequently held by the boys were laborer, shipping clerk, stock clerk, sales clerk, and machine operator (18 to 22 boys reported having each job). Boys also mentioned assembler (13); trucker (12), mechanic's assistant (9), and gas station attendant (7). Each of the following jobs was held by 4 to 6 boys: counter man, door-to-door salesman, pin boy, meat cutter, waiter, and elevator operator.

The two jobs most frequently reported by the girl dropouts were sales clerk (38) and assembler (34). Office clerk (18) and waitress(15) were also frequently mentioned. Five to eight girls reported having each of the following jobs: cashier, comptometer operator, pottery decorator, fountain girl, housemaid, packer, and stock clerk. (67, p. 52)

D-43 Nationally, completion of vocational courses by boys seemed to have little effect on type of jobs obtained, and dropouts and graduates fared not too differently. For girls who took commercial courses, however, high school graduation opened the way to typist-stenographer-bookkeeper occupations, whereas few girl dropouts could get such jobs. Of those who had worked, one-third of boy graduates and a little more than one-fourth of boy dropouts were able to get skilled or semiskilled jobs, such as drivers of delivery trucks, auto repairmen, and operators in factories. Substantial proportions of both boy and girl dropouts and graduates had unskilled jobs as their first jobs. The range was from 33 per cent for boy graduates to 55 per cent for girl dropouts. In many of these jobs, advancement was limited. For example, boys had such jobs as filling station attendant, retail clerk, and delivery truckdriver. Girl graduates had office jobs, but girl dropouts had such jobs as waitresses. Some of each group were found in factories.

For the 40 per cent of all school leavers whose jobs at the time of the interview were different from their first jobs, progress was observed. At the same time, the gap was widening between the level of skilled jobs held by graduates and those held by dropouts. About one-half of the boy graduates held skilled or semiskilled jobs, although only about one-third of them started in such classifications. More than one-third of the boy dropouts were in skilled or semiskilled work on the date of interview, compared with a little more than one-fourth of them at the time of their first jobs. The proportion of girl graduates doing office work increased to 70 per cent, but the proportion of girl dropouts working in offices increased to only 16 per cent. (88, pp. 5-6, 26-31)

D-44 Sixty-four per cent of the girl graduates and only 15 per cent of the girl dropouts had obtained clerical work as their first jobs. Dropouts were more frequently in sales work, however; 45 per cent of the dropouts and 20 per cent of the graduates were so employed. More girl dropouts (10 per cent) than graduates (2 per cent) were working as unskilled laborers. Ten per cent of the graduates and 18 per cent of the dropouts were employed as waitresses; 4 per cent of the graduates and 12 per cent of the dropouts were employed in various other jobs. (95, p. 102)

Income

D-45 In the "short run," dropouts in Utica, New York, were doing as well as graduates; in some cases they even got higher earnings, due in some instances to seniority. (1, p. 10)

D-46 A sample of Syracuse, New York, dropouts were interviewed two years after they had left school in 1959-60. The median hourly earnings for the white male was $1.63; for the white female, $1.21; and, for the non-white female, $1.18. The information on non-white males was lacking. (6, p. 153)

D-47 The average annual income in the United States for men 45 to 54 years old in 1949 increased as the amount of education of the men increased. Those who left school before entering high school were earning approximately $1,600 to $3,100 annually, which was less than the $3,550 average for the total sample. High school dropouts were earning $3,600, while high school graduates made $4,500. Those with some college training, of course, earned even more.

Non-white men have regularly lower incomes than white men and their incomes are much less affected by changes in educational achievement. Even a college education has not served to raise the majority of non-white men above the service worker or laborer classification.

An estimate of the life-time income for men at varying educational levels was made on the basis of the 1950 census. Men with only eight years of elementary school were expected to earn $116,000 during their working career; high school dropouts, $135,000; high school graduates, $165,000; and college graduates, $268,000. (32, pp. 308-10)

D-48 Graduates were making substantially more money at the time of the interviews than were dropouts, a national report indicated. Only 3 per cent of the boy graduates but 15 per cent of the boy dropouts were earning less than $40 a week. About one-fifth of the girl graduates were earning $60 a week, as compared to one-tenth of the girl dropouts. (88, p. 7)

Dropouts' Evaluations of Their Jobs

D-49 Of 88 Syracuse, New York, dropouts in 1959-60, 13 male dropouts and 4 female dropouts evaluated their jobs as offering some chances for advancement, while 17 males and 16 females evaluated their jobs as having no chances for advancement.

For the male dropouts, the main reasons for liking a job included associations, activity, pay, opportunity for advancement or experience, and the outdoor or indoor quality of the job. Main reasons for disliking a job were activity, employer, pay, hours, and working conditions. For females, the main satisfactions from their jobs were association, activity, and pay; while dissatisfactions included association, activity, pay, hours, and working conditions. (6, pp. 148, 154)

D-50 Of more than 1,000 midwestern youth who left school during the 1945-46 school year, about half were satisfied with the jobs they held at the time of the interviews, and about half wanted better jobs. (25, pp. 71-73)

D-51 Reasons given by Syracuse, New York, dropouts for leaving various jobs were similar to those given for leaving school. Only a small proportion of the dropouts gave any reason for leaving jobs. Some said they were "laid off." The most frequent reason was that they disliked the work. Others mentioned the work was too strenuous or monotonous, they disliked the foreman or employer, pay was too low or discipline was too strict. (67, pp. 4, 53)

General Employment Success

D-52 In Quincy, Illinois, controls and dropouts were rated on work adjustment, taking into account the young person's attitude toward his job, advancements in rank or pay, employer's rating and comments, and whether the student had been fired. Ratings ranged from 1 to 5. Controls not only obtained better jobs, but they performed better on the job than did dropouts. Forty-two per cent of the dropouts ranked at the bottom of the scale, as compared with 8 per cent of the controls. One-fifth of the controls and no dropouts were ranked at the top of the scale. A year later both groups had improved, but controls were still superior to dropouts, especially in terms of the length of time they had held their jobs, their employer's evaluations of them, number of promotions they had received, and the number whose employers stated they would rehire them. (14, pp. 49-51)

D-53 Of 73 girls and 146 boys who dropped out or transferred from one Syracuse, New York, high school from 1934-48, and who returned a questionnaire, 24 girls and 63 boys said they were then working on a job they thought would prepare them for their career. However, 32 girls and 59 boys said they were not then working on such a job. (49, p. 29)

D-54 Male graduates not going to college presented a uniform array of young men fairly continuously employed, a national study indicated. Experiences of male dropouts were more varied. Some had jobs with continuity of employment and wages approximating those of male graduates; other dropouts did not. (88, p. 2)

Marriage, Independence, Church Participation and General Success

D-55 Of 53 single Syracuse, New York, dropouts, 46 were still living with their parents; of 35 married dropouts, 8 were living with their parents. (6, pp. 166, 179)

D-56 On the basis of questions asked in the interviews, it was determined to what degree Quincy, Illinois, controls and dropouts were self-supporting or dependent on their parents. Although dropouts had been out of school for six months when interviewed, more controls than dropouts were self-supporting (70 per cent of controls and 55 per cent of dropouts) and more dropouts were dependent on their parents. A total of 77 per cent of the dropouts were living with their parents, although some were married, and all but three controls lived with parents or relatives. (14, p. 28)

D-57 By summer 1959, one year after the date when most of the age cohort who stayed in school had graduated, 82 per cent of the dropout girls and 32 per cent of the dropout boys were married. Marriages of dropouts and controls were rated on a 5-point scale by three people. Controls, on the whole, had more successful marriages than dropouts. Only one-quarter of the dropouts' marriages were rated above average (4 or 5 points), while 70 per cent of the controls' marriages were so rated. More than one-third of the dropouts' marriages and only 5 per cent of the controls' marriages were given the lowest ratings. (14, pp. 53-56)

D-58 Very few dropouts were members of churches, while the majority of the controls were. Many of the latter were active members and leaders in church activities. (14, pp. 83-84, 98)

D-59 Fifteen graduates and nine dropouts, all of below-average measured intelligence, were given a numerical success rating, using income, church activity, civic record, and occupational level as criteria for the rating. Low ability graduates were more successful than were low ability dropouts. The difference was statistically significant at the .01 level. (80, p. 144)

SECTION E

ACTION PROGRAMS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Action Programs

E-1 The state legislature in California enacted a law which provides for part-time education for employed minors. Those who are employed attend classes four hours a week; those who are not employed but are unadjusted in regular school must attend at least three hours a day. This program is called Continuation Education. Classes are kept small, from 15 to 20 students, and subjects such as English are taught at a basic level. (9)

E-2 The Detroit Council for Youth Service, in cooperation with several public and private agencies, has carried on the Job Upgrading Program in the area since 1949. The program is designed to aid unemployed, out-of-school youth who are referred to the program by agencies, schools, and individuals. Most of the youth have been 16 or 17 years old and dropouts from the ninth and tenth grades. The program consists of a counseling and training course lasting at least six weeks. Youth meet in a group three hours each morning for discussion of behavior and personal problems, job-hunting procedures, and proper work habits. Typewriters and other machines are available for practice in clerical skills. Field trips to employment and social agencies are taken. Intelligence, reading, and aptitude tests are given, and special assistance in reading is available. Regular high school courses are open to the youth.

After six weeks, some take a job, while others are given supervised work experience in subsidized, part-time jobs in the city's social agencies for another six week period. Youth find their own full-time jobs or do so with the help of the placement service of the board of education. Counselors maintain contact with the youth for about six months after they secure a job or return to school. Private employers who have been satisfied with the youth from the Job Upgrading Program are beginning to call upon the program when they need an employee.

Results of the program for a typical year were: 41 per cent of the members were placed on jobs, 29 per cent were still in the process of upgrading, 26 per cent left voluntarily or for reasons beyond control, and 4 per cent returned to day school. (42, pp. 8-11; 86, pp. 3-7; 90, p. 76)

E-3 In 1956 the "Four Track Curriculum" was instituted in Washington, D.C. Completion of any one of four curricula--honor, regular college preparatory, general or basic--is sufficient to receive a standard high school diploma. The "Basic Track" was designed to encourage the grade-retarded, slow-learning, potential dropout to remain in school and to give him special preparation for effective and useful citizenship. (46, p. 5)

E-4 Of 232 Massachusetts principals who replied to a questionnaire, 39 reported regular records were maintained on all school leavers; 34 said dropouts were counseled by guidance teachers before leaving; 21 said the principal had a conference with the pupil and his parents before the youth left school; 19 reported that the school was making a follow-up study of all dropouts; 7 said the school was making program adjustments to prevent the student from leaving; 2 reported briefing the dropout on employment opportunities; 2 encouraged dropouts to enter night school; 5 said that part-time jobs were allowed when a pupil was dropping because of financial need. (54, p. 51)

E-5 The Michigan Committee on School Holding Power was established in 1951 with the major goal of stimulating local awareness of the dropout problem. It was hoped that local schools would be encouraged to re-evaluate and, if necessary, change their programs in order to attract individual students. (65, pp. 53-54)

E-6 In Miami Springs, Florida, an occupational program was developed in the junior high school to identify potential dropouts, to hold uninterested students in school as long as possible while attempting to instill in them a more acceptable attitude toward society, and to prepare students who lacked academic ability to assume useful occupations. Potential dropouts were carefully selected and placed in three groups: those who lacked ability, those who lacked interest, and those who showed aggressive tendencies. Students were assigned to orientation classes where films and discussions centered on personal problems and jobs. Class schedules were rearranged to increase interest. Students were employed part-time to eliminate socio-economic problems and to provide work experience. Follow-up studies showed notable success of the program. (69)

E-7 In 1959 an Early Identification and Prevention Program was instituted in New York City. It is assumed that students must be helped in the lower grades if their tendency toward maladjustment is to be overcome. Consequently, the program starts in kindergarten and extends to the third grade, with follow-up services for those who need them. The program is conducted by teams of psychologists, guidance counselors, and social workers. Each team cooperates with school personnel and community agencies. (74)

E-8 Efforts to keep youth in school in Lane County, Oregon, were extended through the summer vacation, when the majority of dropouts occur. Youngsters who were considered to be potential dropouts were sent to summer work camps; they received a small salary for their work. Reportedly, all youth were enthusiastic upon their return to school. (74, p. 8)

E-9 In six secondary schools in St. Louis, Missouri, 600 boys and girls who were considered capable of learning, but who were handicapped by lack of skills in the three R's, were selected. The 600 were divided randomly into two equal-sized groups--a work group and a control group.

Ten specialists and selected teachers work with the youngsters in the work group on remedial instruction, job counseling, and job placement. In addition, each student is required to take three courses each semester. It is expected that the student will be working with adults who will encourage him and raise his occupational goals, and at the same time he will be acquiring feelings of status, self-sufficiency, and of being worthwhile to his family. The goal is to encourage all students to return to school full time. (77, pp. 17-19)

E-10 A Wisconsin state law requires all Milwaukee youth who have dropped out of school before their eighteenth birthday, and who are not married, to attend school at least one day a week if they are employed and full time if they are unemployed. In the part-time program, testing, training, counseling, placement, and follow-up services are available. In the full-time program, unemployed youth learn job skills and good work habits. The school's placement service helps many find jobs and those who are placed are followed-up once every six months for one or two years. Fourteen full-time counselors are available to both groups. Both programs teach youth some skills, show them how to assess their abilities, and how to become steady workers. (86, pp. 8-10)

E-11 Pennsylvania laws require school attendance until age 17 unless a youth has graduated or is 16 and legally employed. Employment certificates are required for all those age 16 to 18 who wish to work during school hours. In Philadelphia, through the work permit system and the corresponding physical examinations, the dropout's employment is guided. In this way the dropout is steered away from illegal jobs and from jobs not physically suited for him. Follow-ups are made after the dropout is employed. (86, pp. 11-14)

E-12 In Roanoke, Virginia, each school periodically sends a list of its dropouts to the director of the Adult Education Program, who then sends each dropout a letter asking him to come in for a conference. When the dropout appears, aptitude and interest tests are administered, and the youth is encouraged to continue in school during the day or to attend evening classes. If he persists in seeking a job, he is referred to the State Employment Service. (86, pp. 19-21)

E-13 Ohio laws require full-time school attendance until age 18 unless a young person has graduated or is 16 and employed. In Youngstown, those who leave school before 18 in order to work are referred to the State Employment Service. That agency gives the youth a realistic picture of the city employment situation while encouraging him to remain in school. The dropout who registers with the Employment Service must report on his job-hunting progress periodically for approximately three months. The schools allow a dropout to attend any day or evening classes which will aid him in his work. (86, pp. 26-28)

E-14 Potential dropouts in Lincoln, Nebraska, are assigned to a special counselor on the school staff who instructs them in cleanliness, how to fill out job applications, and otherwise aids them in securing a job. Young persons and their employers are later contacted to check on job progress. (90)

E-15 In 1948, a cooperative program was set up by the Passaic, New Jersey, schools, community agencies, and employment office. Dropouts were referred directly to the city psychologist, where aptitude and interests tests were given, and then to the employment service. Socially and personally maladjusted youth were urged to attend the Co-Ed Club or the YWCA. Employers were encouraged to hire from this screened labor supply. After five years, one-third of the city's dropouts had decided to remain in school, one-third had transferred to night school, and most of the remainder were employed in suitable jobs. (90, p. 75)

E-16 In New York City, civil service jobs for which there is a paucity of qualified applicants are given as part-time jobs to qualified students who are potential dropouts. (90, p. 76)

E-17 In Great Britain, the Youth Employment Service is supervised by youth employment committees in each area of the United Kingdom and is carried on partly by the education authorities and partly by the Ministry of Labor. The Service is extensively used by in-schoolers as well as out-of-schoolers. After placing a youth on a job, the Service keeps in contact with him for several months. It encourages young people to look for worthwhile jobs and steers them away from "blind alley" jobs. The Service also sponsors talks, films, and trips and publishes pamphlets to inform prospective school leavers of types of jobs available. (91, p. 3)

Recommendations for Keeping Dropouts in School and Increasing Their Chances in the Labor Market*

E-18 Dropouts in Utica, New York, were poorly informed concerning job opportunities. More job counseling should be made available to young people out of school. (1, p. 10)

E-19 The youngster should know what is expected of him in school and why. This requires that teachers set definite conduct expectations and accomplishment expectations. (9)

E-20 Between 1946 and 1954, when the following recommendations were used, the holding power of Pine Hill High School in Buffalo, New York, increased from 59 per cent to 90 per cent. Recommendations were: supervised study, increased practical nature of study (such as field trips), more practical elective subjects, home visits to acquaint both teachers and parents with the program, and work experience programs and job placements. (13, p. 85)

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*Refer to pages 17-24 of Part I: Commentary.

E-21 National statistics show that for many dropouts failure and grade level retardation begin early, perhaps as early as the third grade. The educational level of their parents and the attitudes toward education in their homes and neighborhoods also affect their tendency to leave school. In the elementary grades potential dropouts need individual guidance by personnel trained in the techniques of counseling, identification, testing, and work with parents and community groups. For older youths who benefit little from the traditional system, a guidance-oriented, work-study program is suggested. (16, p. 3)

E-22 The stay-in-school campaign may have been wrongly timed if enough accomodation is not available for a large number of students. Since the main reason for leaving is dissatisfaction with school, perhaps the goal of educators should be to improve schools rather than to force the potential dropout to enjoy what he considers inadequate. (17)

E-23 The Chicago Public High School "Drop-Out" Committee made the following recommendations for dealing with the dropout problem: development of a coordinated plan for handling absences, truancies, and discipline cases so deeper problems would be recognized early and handled intelligently; full use of cumulative school records; curriculum modifications to meet the needs and interests of all pupils; development of more effective and unified methods of "checking out" the student when withdrawal is unavoidable; development of an in-service training program presenting modern techniques in counseling. (24, p. 23)

E-24 In a survey of midwestern youth who left school in 1945-46, 1,662 suggestions for changes in the schools were made by 763 school leavers. Thirty-eight per cent of the suggestions were that the schools should provide work experience or specific vocational instruction. More personal contact with teachers and the service of a guidance counselor accounted for another 23 per cent of the suggestions. Other suggestions included: more participation in school activities (11 per cent), an opportunity to change courses (11 per cent), smaller classes with more individual instruction (9 per cent), and the opportunity to transfer to another school (8 per cent). (25, p. 57)

E-25 Schools should provide for some minimum of success by all students. Because both regular and continuation students seek jobs, the school should provide part-time work for all who need or request it. (28)

E-26 Miriam Fuhrman, Advisor in Youth Employment, Bureau of Labor Standards, United States Department of Labor, suggests that school administrations need financial support in order to provide the following services in response to the dropout problem: smaller classes, differentiated curricula, remedial services, counseling and psychological personnel, reduction in school expenses for individual students, easy access to a return to school through night school and special classes, a job training center apart from the school, increased information given at the public employment office, and school and work programs. She feels that vocational education and apprenticeship training are too technical for most non-achievers. Instead, these youth should be given an informal, short-term job preparation. (31, pp. 36-37)

E-27 In order to increase the holding power of schools, considerable attention must be given to the dropout problem prior to high school. Before leaving elementary school, children should be assisted in developing a tentative program covering all four years of high school. They should be given adequate orientation to the resources of the high schools. They should not be made to think of elementary school graduation as a terminal point in their education, but rather, the importance of graduating from high school should be emphasized. (38)

E-28 Odd jobs and spare jobs should not be considered natural training grounds for school dropouts. Research is needed concerning how much work experience improves learning ability, which kinds of adolescents profit most from paid work experience, and how useful paid work is in the rehabilitation of the delinquent. (45, p. 8)

E-29 Since there is a high relation between grade retardation in elementary school and leaving school at a young age, this factor may be an early, recognizable sign of the dropout. Schools should pay attention to what kinds of pupils fail in elementary school. A special effort should be made to provide learning activities that reach the grade-level retarded pupils. Programs set up to overcome the early withdrawal of these pupils should not set them apart from other pupils. (52, pp. 268-270)

E-30 The Research Division and Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association made the following suggestions regarding the dropout problem:

1. Since most dropouts report the school curriculum failed to be applicable to their lives, the school should set up curricula to include courses of interest to potential dropouts.
2. The evaluation of performance of weaker students should be separate from that of better students.
3. All students should be encouraged to participate in extracurricular activities.
4. Students should be informed about the school's courses, activities, and services.
5. Students should be assigned to a particular counselor with whom they could consult.
6. In some schools, special courses have been set up for those who have been designated as potential dropouts by guidance personnel. These courses were designed to give appropriate training to these youth and to provide a smooth transition from school to work.

(58, pp. 15-18, 21)

E-31 John W. Porter, secretary of the Michigan Committee on School Holding Power, asserted that a major weakness of many schools is their inability to identify their dropouts, both descriptively and statistically. A continuous plan of early identification, counseling, community participation, and follow-up is essential to every good school program. (65)

E-32 The White House Conference on Children and Youth, held in 1960, made a large number of recommendations, including the following, regarding school dropouts:

1. Guidance services should be more concerned with potential dropouts and should stress the importance of education.

2. Each rural community should develop its human resources and critically examine its educational program.
3. A national agency should be given the responsibility of collecting information on existing programs designed to aid youth in the transition from school to work.
4. Employment of out-of-school youth should be partially subsidized in areas where no other employment is available.
5. Schools, parents, employers, unions, and state and community agencies should initiate joint action to find solutions to the employment problems of dropouts.
6. A comprehensive, nationwide program should be developed to deal with the dropout problem. This program would include citizen action to study the causes of dropping out, school work programs, central information centers and employment services provided by the community, and any other services necessary to assist dropouts in attaining and retaining employment.

(66, p. 26-28)

E-33 The holding power of schools could be increased by teaching salable skills to the slow learners. (72, p. 13)

E-34 A form should be filled out for each pupil at the elementary school level which would be sent to their prospective high schools. This form would be designed to detect potential school leavers and thus facilitate the setting up of special programs for such youngsters. (94)

SECTION F

BIBLIOGRAPHIES ON DROPOUTS

F-1 Gillis, John S. "A Survey of Literature on Young Workers." Unpublished seminar paper, New York School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, June, 1960, pp. 31-53. (Typewritten)

F-2 Kohler, Mary Conway, and Freedman, Marcia K. Annotated Bibliography for Youth and Work Project. New York: Taconic Foundation, Inc., September, 1962.
Comprehensive annotated bibliography covers not only dropout studies but also studies about youth in the labor market, the changing character of the labor market, training programs for youth, job counseling for young people, and work camps and projects. Each reference is briefly described.

F-3 Longstreth, Langdon E. School Dropouts: A Review of Recent Literature. Los Angeles: Youth Studies Center, University of Southern California, 1961.
Primarily a summary of recent research results with bibliography included. (See Part III: Annotations: References and Methodology.)

F-4 Miller, Leonard M. References on Dropouts: Related to the Identification, Causes, Prevention, and Counseling of Dropouts at the Elementary, Secondary and Higher Education Levels. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, October, 1962. (Mimeographed)
This extensive bibliography includes books and pamphlets, periodicals and audiovisual aids dealing with dropouts; census reports on population characteristics and school enrollments; reports on state, county and local dropout programs; projects and studies; and Office of Education publications and statistical reports.

F-5 "The Drop-Out Student--A Problem of Secondary Education," 2nd ed. Unpublished bibliography, College of Education Library, University of Florida, no. 42, January, 1960.

Source lists books, pamphlets, and periodical articles on the subject of dropouts which are available in the library cited.

F-6 Weary, Bettina. School Dropout. Selected and Annotated References. United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, April, 1962. References included which refer to elementary school, secondary school, junior college, and college and university. Each reference is briefly summarized.

PART III

ANNOTATIONS: REFERENCES AND METHODOLOGY

1 Adams, Leonard P. "When Young People Leave School: A Study of the Experiences of High School Graduates and Dropouts in Utica, New York, 1953-57," Industrial and Labor Relations Research, IV, 2 (Summer, 1958), 9-11. (B-70, D-28, D-45, E-18)

Data concerning a 50 per cent sample of school leavers were collected from school records in order to identify characteristics of dropouts, to determine their reasons for leaving school, and to trace their subsequent experiences in the job world. This study is part of the larger investigation reported in No. 88.

2 Allen, Charles M. Combating the Dropout Problem. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1956. (C-73)

One hundred former high school sophomores in Contra Costa County, California, were interviewed within a week after dropping out of school. Their feelings about school experiences were compared with those of 100 sophomores who had remained in the same school.

3 Allen, Charles M. "What Have Our Drop-Outs Learned?" Educational Leadership, X (1952-53), 347-50. (C-40, C-74, C-86)

In this preliminary Illinois study, personnel in 22 senior high schools furnished answers to several questions about their dropouts.

4 Arnholter, Ethelwyne B. "School Persistance and Personality Factors," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXV, 2 (October, 1956), 107-109. (B-73, C-116, D-6)

Subjects were selected from The Arsenal Technical High School in Indianapolis, Indiana. Twenty-five of those who had entered in the September, 1947, class, but who had dropped out before graduation were matched on the basis of sex, age, and intelligence quotient with graduates who had entered in the same class.

Socio-economic status was held somewhat constant by including only those dropouts and controls whose fathers were in the occupational categories of clerical, sales, service, skilled, and semiskilled. The California Mental Health Analysis and the Rotter Incomplete Sentence Blank were administered. Each student and his mother were interviewed.

5 Ayers, Albert L. "Needed: More Factory Classrooms," The American Child, XLIII, 3(May, 1961), 9-14. (A-1, A-15)

6 Baldwin, Kenneth Leroy, et. al. "The Syracuse Drop-out--Two Years Later." Unpublished Group Master's thesis under the supervision of Maurice Connery, School of Social Work, Syracuse University, June, 1962. (B-42, D-4, D-19, D-29, D-34, D-38, D-46, D-49, D-55)

Of 626 students who withdrew from Syracuse, New York, schools in 1959-60, a random sample of 120 dropouts was drawn. Subjects included an equal number of boys and girls, with half the number of each sex having families with county welfare histories. Interviews regarding job experience since leaving school and current daily activities were completed in the Spring of 1962 for 88 of these dropouts.

7 Bash, C.E., and Johnson, E.H. "How to Make and Utilize Follow-up Studies of School Leavers," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XL (April, 1956), 214-17.

Students, principals, and parole officers in California were questioned regarding their ideas and feelings about dropouts.

8 Berdie, Ralph. "From High School to University . . . in Two Countries," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXVI, 6 (February, 1958), 402-407. (A-16, A-23)

Statistics of the United States and of Australia were compared in an attempt to ascertain some basic reasons why students drop out of schools in the United States.

9 Berston, H.M. "The School Dropout Problem," The Clearing House, XXXV (December, 1960), 207-10. (C-28, C-75, C-87, C-143, E-1, E-19)

Report concerns continuation boys, ages 14 to 18, who had dropped out of regular California schools and who were attending special classes in San Francisco.

10 Bertrand, Alvin L. "School Attendance and Attainment: Function and Dysfunction of School and Family Social Systems," Social Forces, XL, 3 (March, 1962), 228-33. (B-27, B-38, B-43, B-74, C-76, C-106)

Subjects included 369 junior and senior high school students and 68 dropouts from eight rural high schools in two selected counties of Louisiana. Parents of the dropouts and 125 of the parents of youths in school were interviewed, as were principals and certain teachers at the schools.

11 Bischoff, Constance, and Bischoff, Harold. "Will I Know Enough?" Educational Leadership, XV, 1 (October, 1957), 14-17.

Approximately 100 tenth-grade, public school students were asked whether or not they thought they were being educated adequately.

12 Bledsoe, Joseph C. "An Investigation of Six Correlates of Student Withdrawal from High School," Journal of Educational Research, XXXI (September, 1959), 3-6. (B-4, B-28, B-44, C-31, C-63)

Subjects included 247 students who withdrew during 1953-56 from the eighth, ninth, and tenth grades of a small Georgia city high school. Main sources of information were the California Reading Achievement Test (Advanced), administered at the ninth-grade level, and other school records.

13 Boggan, Earl J. "What Are the Major Causes of Student Dropouts and What Should the School Do About the Present Condition?" The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-

School Principals, XXXIX, 210 (April, 1955), 84-87. (B-22, B-29, B-45, B-52, C-41, C-107, C-150, E-20)

All members of the classes of 1946-50 in the Pine Hill High School, Buffalo, New York, were surveyed. Graduates and dropouts were compared with regard to such factors as size, occupation, and education of family; intelligence; distance from residence to school; and reasons for leaving school.

14 Bowman, Paul H., and Matthews, Charles V., Motivations of Youth for Leaving School. Quincy, Illinois: University of Chicago, Quincy Youth Development Project, 1960. (A-24, B-5, B-24, B-39, B-53, B-75, C-3, C-11, C-23, C-25, C-42, C-77, C-88, C-99, C-108, C-117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, C-134, C-139, C-151, D-1, D-39, D-52, D-56, D-57, D-58)

Study population consisted of 487 Quincy, Illinois, public school children who were sixth-graders in 1951-52 and who were in the potential graduating class of 1958. Data were collected for the entire age cohort for eight years following the sixth grade. All dropouts from this group were interviewed six months after leaving school in order to ascertain their reasons for dropping out, adjustment to school, vocational history, and future plans. Additional data were obtained from school and church records, questionnaires, interviews with the dropouts' employers, and the Quincy Youth Project's case records. (Information could not be obtained for 55 youth who had moved out of the community.)

Two control groups were chosen from the stay-in population. One group of 101 matched the dropouts on social status, and one group of 111 matched the dropouts on intelligence. (There were only 127 controls, however, since some fell in both groups.) The controls were interviewed after they completed eleventh grade. One year after graduation, a follow-up study provided additional data.

The following variables were studied with the use of the accompanying instruments:

1. Intelligence	The V, S, and R scales of the Chicago Primary Mental Abilities Test.

2. Social status	Warner's Index of Status Characteristics
3. Personal and social adjustment	The California Personality Inventory, California Test of Personality, "Who Are They" Sociometric Test, and "Behavior Description Chart."
4. Marital adjustment	A marital adjustment rating.
5. Achievement values	The Semantic Differential Test adapted from Osgood, parental attitudes as ascertained in the interviews, and the financial status of the youth.
6. School adjustment	Number of years retarded, attendance records, grades achieved in high school, interview data, the Junior High Activities Inventory, and the California Reading Achievement Test given in the elementary grades.
7. Work adjustment	The interview with the employer, length of time each job was held, a work adjustment rating, the record of advancement, and a rating of the job category of the youth.

15 Brook, George C. "High School Drop-outs and Corrective Measures," *Federal Probation*, XXXIII, 3 (September, 1959), 30-35. (B-60, C-26, C-43, C-64)

Report concerns some results of a study conducted by the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. See also No. 85.

16 Brown, Nathan. "America's Need to Develop All Its Human Resources," *The American Child*, XLIII, 2 (March, 1961), 1-4. (A-2, A-17, E-21)

This analysis of national statistics stresses that the large number of dropouts and the increasing need for skilled labor have led to unemployment for many dropout youth.

17 Byrne, Richard Hill. "Beware the Stay-in-School Bandwagon! " The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXVI (March, 1958), 493-96. (E-22)

18 Cantoni, Louis J. "Stay-Ins Get Better Jobs," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXIII (1955), 531-33. (A-25, C-44, D-40)

In 1939, a class of 468 ninth-graders in Flint, Michigan, answered a questionnaire including items on parental occupation and education. A follow-up study investigated the educational and occupational attainments of these youth when they became adults.

19 Chaloupka, Donald W. An Analysis of Factors Related to Early School Leaving of Nebraska City High School, Nebraska City, Nebraska. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, Inc. (Publication No. 24, 995), 1958. (B-6, B-54, B-61, B-76, C-12, C-29, C-32, C-78, C-89, C-100, C-109, C-125, C-135, C-152)

School records of the Nebraska City (Nebraska) School District were studied to determine the extent of the dropout problem from 1945 to 1956. Records of 202 early school leavers and 201 randomly selected graduates were compared. The 100 dropouts who remained in the city were interviewed regarding their reasons for leaving school before graduation.

20 Cook, Edward S., Jr. "An Analysis of Factors Related to Withdrawal from High School Prior to Graduation," Journal of Educational Research, L (November, 1956), 191-96. (B-55, C-4, C-45, C-90)

Ninety-five students who withdrew from a metropolitan, public high school during the 1952-53 school year and a group of 200 non-withdrawing students at the same school were compared. The Bell Adjustment Inventory, Bell School Adjustment Inventory, California Short Form Test of Mental Ability, Science Research Associates Youth Inventory, Sims Social Class Identification, and Occupational Rating Scales were administered.

21 Cook, Edward S., Jr. "How I.Q. Figures in the Drop-out Problem," The School Executive, LXXIV (September, 1954), 56-57. (A-26, C-45)

Students who withdrew from a high school in Atlanta, Georgia, in 1952-53 and a representative sample of non-withdrawing students were compared on the basis of intelligence and academic performance.

22 Coster, John K. "Attitudes Toward School of High School Pupils from Three Income Levels," Journal of Educational Psychology, XLIX, 2 (1958), 61-66. (C-126)

A sample of 878 pupils was selected randomly from the total student populations of nine Indiana high schools. All had been given a questionnaire containing items on attitudes toward school, teachers, other pupils, school program, and the value of education. Pupils were divided into three income groups--high, medium, and low--on the basis of a number of material items, such as appliances, and a number of opportunities, such as art lessons, which the pupils reported their families provided.

23 Davie, James S. "Social Class Factors and School Attendance," Harvard Educational Review, XXIII, 3 (1953), 175-85. (B-25, B-46, B-77)

The study group was composed of all (3,801) legal residents of New Haven, Connecticut, who were 16 or 17 years old as of September 1, 1949, excluding pupils attending primary school, and youth in institutions for the handicapped and delinquents. Adolescents were classified according to type of school they were attending (for example, trade school or university), and parents were stratified socially according to their ecological area of residence. A sample of the families from the study group was interviewed to determine the factors which were operating on the various class levels to produce different educational patterns.

24 Delaney, John F. "That Vacant High School Seat," American School Board Journal, CXXI, 5 (November, 1950), 22-23. (C-13, C-101, E-23)

The 7,177 dropouts from the 1946 entering class of Chicago high school students were the subjects. Some parents, teachers, students, and employers were interviewed.

25 Dillon, Harold J. Early School Leavers, A Major Educational Problem. New York: National Child Labor Committee, 1949. (B-7, B-17, B-30, B-56, B-62, C-14, C-33, C-46, C-70, C-79, C-91, C-102, C-127, C-153, D-7, D-11, D-35, D-41, D-50, E-24)

Five midwestern communities, including small towns and cities, were studied. A 10 per cent sample (1,360) of all youth who dropped out of school voluntarily during the 1945-46 school year was investigated in detail. Sources of data consisted of school records, teacher appraisals of the students, and interviews with the dropouts. Social characteristics, school performance, reasons for leaving, the youth's evaluation of school, and his experience in the job world were investigated.

26 Dresher, Richard H. "Factors in Voluntary Drop-outs," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXII (1953-54), 287-89. (B-78, C-5, C-80, C-110, C-128, C-140, D-15)

Dropouts in this study consisted of the 311 boys and 311 girls who did not return to or withdrew voluntarily from 18 academic, one trade, and one technical high school in Detroit, Michigan, during September, 1951. Forms were completed concerning 601 of these 622 dropouts by checking school records, interviewing the dropouts and their parents, and securing information from school personnel. In this way, 39 factors assumed to be related to reasons for dropping out were investigated.

27 Dresher, Richard H. "Seeds of Delinquency," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXV, 9 (May, 1957), 595-98. (C-129)

Subjects and sources of data were the same as those cited in reference No. 26. Of the 622 subjects studied, 113 were classified as behavior problems on the basis of referral by school authorities to special services in the school system or to a social agency for assistance. Dropouts, both with and without behavior problems, were compared on 23 selected factors.

28 Evariff, William. "How 'Different' Are Our Drop-Outs?" The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XLI (February, 1957), 212-18. (B-47, B-63, B-79, C-34, C-47, C-130, C-136, C-141, C-154, D-12, D-16, E-25)

Seventy-two continuation students (dropouts who attended special classes) were randomly selected from continuation schools in Stockton and Fresno, California. From regular schools in the same towns, 72 students were selected to match the continuation students on sex, grade, scholastic aptitude, father's occupation, and age.

29 Foster, Emery. "School Retention Rate Rises," School Life, XLII, 5 (January, 1960), 20-21. (A-18)

Data are analyzed concerning the percentage of United States students who have reached various educational levels in different time periods. Author refers to a table taken from the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1954-56, Chap. 1, 13.

30 Foster, Irving N. "Some Facts About the Labor Market in the Sixties," The American Child, XLIII, 3 (May, 1961), 5-8. (A-6, D-30)

Essay concerns the expected rate of unemployment of young people in various job classifications in the sixties.

31 Fuhrman, Miriam. "School Drop-outs and Juvenile Delinquency," Federal Probation, XXIV, 3 (September, 1960), 34-37. (A-7, C-155, E-26)

Essay presents the characteristics of high school dropouts and their difficult position in the labor market. The author gives some recommendations for keeping dropouts in school and for improving their job chances.

32 Glick, Paul C., and Miller, Herman P. "Educational Level and Potential Income," American Sociological Review, XXI, 3 (June, 1956), 307-12. (D-47)

Estimation of annual and life-time income for groups with various levels of education.

33 Goff, Aaron. "They Dropped Out of School," Education, LXX (1949-50), 330-32. (C-48)

Teacher recounts his experiences with veterans who had previously dropped out of school.

34 Gragg, William Lee. "Study of Factors Related to the Persistence of Pupils in Public Secondary Schools." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Cornell University, 1950. (C-35)

35 Gragg, William Lee. "Some Factors Which Distinguish Drop-Outs from High School Graduates," Occupations, XXVII, 7 (April, 1949), 457-59. (B-13, C-81, C-92, C-103, C-144)

All dropouts from Ithaca, New York, and New Haven, Connecticut, schools were investigated and compared with a like number of students who graduated at the same time. (Years involved were not stated.)

36 Halsey, A.H., and Gardner, L. "Selection for Secondary Education and Achievement in Four Grammar Schools," *British Journal of Sociology*, IV (1953), 60-75. (B-57, B-80)

Some 350 secondary school boys in Britain were asked when they would like to leave school and at what age their parents would like them to leave.

37 Havighurst, Robert James. *American Higher Education in the 1960's*. Columbus: Ohio State University Press, 1960, 28-32. (A-27, B-8, B-40)

Boys and girls entering sixth grade in 1951 in an agricultural-industrial midwestern city were observed until 1958 to determine how many graduated, attended college, or dropped out of school. Intelligence tests were given to these students in 1951. A socio-economic rating was given to each on the basis of four unspecified factors.

38 Hearn, Arthur. "Increasing the School's Holding Power Through Improved Articulation," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XLII, 4 (April, 1956), 214-18. (E-27)

39 Hightower, Howard W., *et.al*. "Mystery of the Elementary Drop-out." *Phi Delta Kappan,* XXXVIII, 2 (November, 1956), 62-64. (C-15)

Elementary schools in eight counties in eastern Illinois were surveyed to determine how many youth drop out of elementary school. This study was conducted by comparing enrollment figures of the 1948-49 first-grade class for each of the following six years as the pupils progressed through elementary school. (Amount of mobility out of the community each year was not controlled.)

40 "Holding Power of High School," *American School Board Journal,* CXXIX, 6 (December, 1954), 20. (A-19, A-28)

Short report concerns school holding power (percentage of all students graduating) in Utica, New York.

41 Hollingshead, August B. Elmtown's Youth. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949, 329-59. (B-9, B-20, B-41, B-48, B-71, C-6, C-16, C-24, C-49, C-82, C-93, C-104)

In a small, midwestern community in 1941-42, all youth were studied and interviewed, including those who had left school before the end of that school year. Families of the youth were categorized into social classes by a judging procedure.

42 Horton, S.N. "The Job Upgrading Program," The American Child, XLIII, 2 (March, 1961), 8-11. (E-2)

Report concerns a program for dropouts in Detroit, Michigan.

43 "Intensive Guidance Given Potential High School Drop-outs," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXV, 9 (May, 1957), 564.

Report gives results of a special guidance program for 15-year-olds who have shown characteristics of early school leavers. The program was used in three academic schools and one vocational school in New York City. Of 250 potential dropouts, 125 were given the experimental program, while the rest were assigned to the normal guidance program for comparison purposes. A full-time teacher-counselor worked with the experimental groups.

44 Jaques, William. "Hastings High School Works on the Drop Out Problem," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXV, 1 (September, 1956), 39-40.

In 1953-56, 130 potential dropouts were identified in a sample of 331 students in Hastings (Nebraska) High School. The predicted dropouts were so identified because they possessed four or more of the ten characteristics usually associated with dropping out, i.e., failure in school subjects, low participation in school activities, low reading ability, low family economic status, male sex, minimal family education, broken home, low mental ability, excessive absence, and school retardation. Of these 130 potential dropouts, 73 actually left school before graduation.

45 Johnson, Elizabeth, and Kerschbaum, Winifred A. "Defining the Values in Work," The American Child, XXXIX, 2 (March, 1957), 2. (E-28)

Brief sketch of the trend away from work as a training ground for adolescents.

46 Koontz, John D. "The Four Track Curriculum," The American Child, XLIII, 2 (March, 1961), 5-7. (E-3)

Description and report on results of Washington, D.C.'s program to meet the needs of retarded youth, low intelligence youth and early school leavers.

47 Lanier, J. Armand. "A Guidance-Faculty Study of Student Withdrawals," Journal of Educational Research, XLIII (November, 1949), 205-12. (A-11, B-10, B-14, B-26, B-64, C-50, C-65)

In an Austin, Texas, study conducted in the fall semester, 1958, data--including age, sex, nationality, course of study, teachers, test scores, and addresses--were recorded for each high school student. Written and oral reports from teachers, health information, and other relevant data were also used. The guidance counselor had an "exit interview" with each student who left school voluntarily during the semester.

48 Layton, Warren K. "Special Services for the Drop Out and the Potential Drop Out," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXVII, 193 (March, 1953), 72-76.

During the 1950-51 school year, 4,386 pupils left the Detroit high schools prior to graduation. Of these, 2,987 were classified as voluntary dropouts and 1,399 as involuntary dropouts, that is, the latter left due to such factors as draft, marriage, illness, and change of residence. School records and home interviews were the sources of data.

49 Lewis, Alfred J. "Study of Problems Which During the Past Fifteen Years Have Caused Boys and Girls to Leave Syracuse Central High School Before Graduation." Unpublished Master's thesis, Syracuse University, 1951. (B-81, C-156, D-2, D-8, D-13, D-20, D-23, D-36, D-53)

School records of all youth who left or graduated from Central High School in Syracuse, New York, from 1934 through 1948 were examined. Questionnaires were sent to 10 per cent of all males and 10 per cent of all females who left school before graduation. Of 612 questionnaires mailed, only 219 were returned, 73 from girls and 146 from boys. The questionnaires dealt with reasons for leaving, evaluation of the school and courses, and experiences in the job world. Pupils who transferred to other schools were classified as dropouts; 108 of the 219 "dropouts" continued their education elsewhere.

50 Liddle, Gordon P. "Psychological Factors Involved in Dropping Out of School," The High School Journal, XLV, 7(April, 1962), 276-80. (B-58, B-82, C-27, C-51, C-131)

In a midwestern city of 45,000 a team of social scientists studied a "cross sectional" group of 1,200 children from the time they were elementary pupils until they reached early adulthood. All pupils in the public schools who were in the fourth and sixth grades in 1951-52, that is, the potential high school graduates of 1958 and 1960, were studied, regardless of whether they stayed in school or dropped out.

51 Livingston, A. Hugh. "High School Graduates and Dropouts--A New Look at a Persistent Problem," School Review, LXVI (1958), 195-203. (B-11, B-15, B-31, C-52, C-66, C-94, C-111)

Subjects comprised all students who entered the first grade in an Illinois city in 1944-45 and stayed in the schools until they graduated in 1956 or dropped out. Included were 194 graduates and 116 dropouts. Twenty-four factors, such as sex, race, mental ability, extracurricular activities, were investigated to determine whether they had any effect on students dropping out or remaining in school. There was no control for social class.

52 Livingston, A. Hugh. "Key to the Dropout Problem: The Elementary School," The Elementary School Journal, LIX (1959), 267-70. (B-32, B-65, C-17, C-95, C-112, C-132, E-29)

Subjects included students who entered first grade in the 1944-45 school year and who left school before entering the ninth grade. Size of group and methods of data collection were not given.

53 Longstreth, Langdon E. School Dropouts: A Review of Recent Literature. Los Angeles: Youth Studies Center, University of Southern California, 1961. (F-3)

Summary of recent research results on dropout rates, background characteristics of dropouts, school record data, interview data, and prevention programs.

54 Mack, A. Russell. "A Study of Dropouts," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXVIII (February, 1954), 49-51. (A-12, C-30, C-157, E-4)

In August, 1952, superintendents and principals of Massachusetts high schools were asked to estimate the number of dropouts from their schools in 1951-52, to list reasons for leaving, and to indicate what was being done in such areas as prevention programs, counseling, and follow-up studies. Ninety-one per cent of the principals replied to the survey.

55 McCreary, William H., and Kitch, Donald E. Now Hear Youth. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1953.

Twenty-eight projects were conducted in California since 1949 involving 13,000 youth, both dropouts and graduates. Among the factors studied were motivations for school leaving and evaluations of school experiences.

56 Moore, Parlett L. "Factors Involved in Student Elimination from High School," Journal of Negro Education, XXIII (1954), 117-22. (B-23, B-33, B-49, B-83, C-53, C-158)

Ten Negro high schools of various sizes and types in Maryland were included in this study of students who withdrew during the school terms, 1946-47 and 1947-48. Chosen for the study were all of the 322 dropouts from the nine county schools; 101 of the dropouts, randomly selected, from one large Baltimore school; and 20 randomly selected graduates. Since only 320 of the dropouts could be located for interviews, the rest were eliminated from this analysis. In addition to the interviews, which dealt with reasons for leaving, home characteristics, and the like, school records were used.

57 Murk, Virgil. "A Follow-up Study on Students Who Drop Out of High School," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XLIV, 253 (February, 1960), 73-75. (A-13, B-34, C-7, C-18, C-36, C-54, C-159, D-3, D-9, D-24)

Study was conducted in the high school in DeKalb, Illinois. A questionnaire dealing with work experience, feelings, and opinions was mailed to each student who had withdrawn voluntarily from the school during the school terms, 1956-57 and 1957-58. School records were checked for background data. Questionnaires were mailed to 40 girls and 32 boys, but only 28 replies were received.

58 National Education Association, Research Division and Department of Classroom Teachers. High School Dropouts, Discussion Pamphlet No. 3. Washington, D.C.: the Association, Revised September, 1959. (A-3, A-20, A-29, C-137, C-146, E-30)

A general discussion of the national dropout problem, concerning such factors as characteristics of dropouts, dropout rates, early school leaving as a social problem, and possible action programs.

59 New York State Department of Labor. Jobs, The Changing Pattern. Manpower and Technological Change in New York State. Albany, New York: the Department, 1960. (A-4)

Analysis and predictions of labor market trends in New York State based on existing information.

60 New York State Division for Youth. The School Dropout Problem in Major Cities of New York State, Rochester--Part I. Albany, New York: the Division, May, 1962. (A-14, B-12, B-18, B-66, B-72, C-8, C-19, C-55, C-83, C-96, C-160, D-21)

Available records were used as sources of data concerning dropouts from the nine public junior and senior high schools of Rochester, New York. Information for the survey was obtained from Rochester County Welfare Office, Monroe County Central Index (index of all families involved with welfare and police agencies), and Rochester Division of the New York State Employment Service, as well as from school records. By this procedure, 900 students who left the Rochester schools in the school year, September, 1960, to June, 1961, were identified and studied.

61 Patterson, Walter. "What Are the Major Causes of Student Dropouts and What Should the School Do About the Present Condition?" The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXIX (April, 1955), 84-87. (C-161)

One hundred students who left high school between June, 1948, and May, 1952, and 100 students who graduated from the same school in June, 1952, were interviewed regarding their reasons for leaving or staying in school.

62 Patterson, Walter. "Why Do Young People Stay in High School?" *The Clearing House,* XXIX (1954-55), 93-95. (A-30)

Two hundred high school seniors were asked the reasons they were attending school and who influenced them in their decision to remain in school.

63 Penty, Ruth C. "Reading Ability and High School Dropouts," *Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors,* XXIII, 1 (October, 1959), 11-15. (C-67)

Poor readers, including dropouts, high school seniors, and graduates, were interviewed regarding their reasons for leaving or staying in school. Data were available concerning reading and mental maturity tests, which had been given when the students were at the tenth-grade level.

64 Pond, Frederick. "Pennsylvania Study of Dropouts and the Curriculum," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals,* XXXVII, 193 (March, 1953), 81-87. (C-9)

In 184 selected secondary schools in Pennsylvania, 2,400 teachers interviewed 4,863 dropouts. Each teacher interviewed two persons. Interviews concerned the dropout's evaluation of school subjects, his opinion of high school education in general, and his reasons for leaving school.

65 Porter, John W. "School Dropouts: A State Plan," *National Education Association Journal,* LI, 5 (May, 1962), 53-54. (E-5, E-31)

Report on Michigan School Holding Power project designed to stimulate local communities into re-evaluating their school programs in terms of the dropout problem.

66 "Recommendations of the White House Conference on Children and Youth," *Employment Security Review,* XXVIII, 3 (March, 1961), 25-28. (E-32)

Listing of recommendations on the dropout problem which were developed in this conference.

67 Research Division, Board of Education, Syracuse, New York. Syracuse Youth Who Did Not Graduate: A Study of Youth Who Withdrew from School Before High School Graduation, 1945-1949. Syracuse, New York: the Board of Education, 1950. (B-19, B-50, B-84, C-162, D-14, D-31, D-42, D-51)

Sample consisted of every fifth dropout during the period, 1945-49. Subjects lived in 50 of the 61 census tracts in the city, and only eight had attended any type of school after withdrawing. All 99 boys and 95 girls were interviewed by school personnel regarding work experience, evaluation of their high school education, achievements in school, and certain social characteristics.

68 Roberts, John. "Let's Keep Them in School," California Journal of Secondary Education, XXXIII (January, 1958), 115-18.

Discussion of research on dropouts conducted by California State Department of Education and others.

69 Roberts, Richard O., and McGeever, John F. "A Junior Occupational Program," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XLI (November, 1957), 43-47. (E-6)

Report on program used in Miami Springs, Florida, Junior High School to identify potential dropouts and to keep uninterested students in school as long as possible.

70 Ryan, W. Carson. "Mental Health Problems of School Leaving," Understanding the Child, XXV, 4 (October, 1956), 98-102.

Cites discussions at the Utrecht conference of the New Education Fellowship and poses questions concerning school leaving and mental health.

71 Sando, Rudolph. "This They Believe," California Journal of Secondary Education, XXXI, 1 (January, 1956), 45-49. (D-10)

Two hundred high school students, 100 of whom had dropped out of school in their sophomore and junior years, were asked 60 questions about their high school experiences. Of the students interviewed, 90 per cent were in the lower 50 per cent (based on a socio-economic scale) of the student body; 65 per cent had repeated at least one grade; and 36 per cent had intelligence quotients of 84 or lower. Dropouts and non-dropouts were not compared; rather, the percentage of the total 200 was given for each response.

72 Savitzky, Charles. "Introduction to a Program for Possible Dropouts," High Points, XLIII, 8 (November, 1961), 5-14. (E-33)

Introduction to a program for identifying and teaching potential dropouts, who, it was assumed, are slow learners. These slow learners, it is argued, should be taught salable skills and need encouragement, extra help, and patience.

73 "School Days . . . For How Many Years?" Scholastic Teacher, LXIX (December 6, 1956), 6-9.

Issue discussed concerns whether or not all students should be required by law to stay in school until they are 18 years old.

74 "School Dropouts: Local Plans," National Education Association Journal, LI, 5 (May, 1962), 55-59. (E-7, E-8)

Descriptions of programs for dealing with the dropout problem in six communities.

75 Schreiber, Daniel. "School Dropouts," National Education Association Journal, LI, 5 (May, 1962), 51-52. (A-5, C-37, C-56, D-32)

Essay on dropouts as a national problem and the response of schools to this problem.

76 Sharp, Selby. "Automobiles and Pupil Adjustment," The Clearing House, XXXII (September, 1957), 83-85. (C-138)

Subjects were the 347 boys attending Selma, California, Union High School during the second semester of the 1954-55 school year. They were divided into two groups, frequent drivers and non-drivers, and compared on school adjustment. The latter was measured by school attendance, scholastic attainment, curriculums selected by the group members, and the number of dropouts from each group. There was no control for social class, grade level, or measured intelligence.

77 Smith, Giles J. "A Work-Related Project," The American Child, XLIII, 2 (March, 1961), 16-19. (E-9)

Report on a research program in St. Louis, Missouri, dealing with ways to keep culturally deprived children in school until graduation.

78 Snepp, Daniel W. "Can We Salvage the Dropouts?" The Clearing House, XXXI, 1 (September, 1956), 49-54. (B-67, B-85, C-10, C-20, C-57, C-68, C-113, C-133)

Subjects of this study comprised 208 students who dropped out of school in the 1955-56 school year. Sources of data included school records and contacts with the dropout or his parents by the counseling staff. The result was a profile of the Evansville drop-out in such terms as age, intelligence quotient, reading level, and type of home.

79 Snepp, Daniel W. "Why They Drop Out," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXV, 180 (October, 1951), 137-41. (C-97, C-163)

Subjects included 254 young people (152 boys and 102 girls) who withdrew from the five public schools in Evansville, Indiana, in the first semester of the school year. Sources of information were cumulative school records and personal contact of the guidance counselor with the dropout or a member of his family.

80 Sorensen, Mourits A. "Low Ability Dropouts Versus Low Ability Graduates," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXIX (October, 1960), 144-45. (D-59)

Survey was conducted in a small high school. Chosen for the study were former students born between 1930 and 1934, inclusive, who had at least a failing grade and scored below 90 on an intelligence test, or who had a score below the tenth percentile on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination for High School Students (ACE). There were 18 graduates and 16 dropouts with these characteristics, but information was gathered on only 15 of the graduates and 9 of the dropouts. Questionnaires were mailed to the subjects, some were interviewed, and some information was obtained from faculty and other persons in the community. Each subject was given a rating of one to three in four categories: income, church activity, occupational level, and civic record.

81 Tessener, R.A., and Tessener, L.M. "Review of the Literature on School Dropouts," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XLII, 238 (May, 1958), 141-53. (A-31)

Summary of what has been learned about dropouts, based on information drawn from a variety of dropout studies.

82 Thomas, Robert Jay. "An Empirical Study of High School Dropouts in Regard to Ten Possibly Related Factors," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXVIII (September, 1954), 11-18. (B-16, B-35, C-58, C-69, C-71, C-84, C-114)

Study was conducted in a four-year high school in the greater Chicago area. Seventy per cent (434) of the students who entered as freshmen in 1947 were randomly selected and studied. Data were collected from school records.

83 Toby, Jackson. "Orientation to Education as a Factor in the School Maladjustment of Lower-Class Children," Social Forces, XXXV, 3 (March, 1957), 259-66. (B-88)

Author tries to answer question of why middle-class children do better in school than lower-class children.

84 Tompkins, Ellsworth. "Where Are the Boys?" School and Society, LXX (July-December, 1949), 8-10. (B-1)

Statistics from various sources were quoted to support author's concern that holding power of schools is not so great for boys as for girls.

85 United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. Retention in High Schools in Large Cities, Bulletin No. 15. Washington, D.C.: the Department, 1957. (Written and compiled by David Segel and Oscar J. Schwarm.) (A-21, B-2, B-21, C-147)

Fourteen school systems in cities of 200,000 or more cooperated in the study; all followed a uniform method of reporting dropouts. The ninth-grade class of September, 1951, was observed for four years in each school until the students dropped out, transferred, or graduated. (Transfers to other schools were classified as involuntary dropouts.)

86 United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards. After Teen-Agers Quit School. Seven Community Programs Help Would-be Workers, Bulletin No. 150. Washington, D.C.: the Department, 1951. (E-2, E-10, 11, 12, 13)

Description of seven existing programs designed to help the high school dropout find a suitable job and, in some cases, to continue his education. Programs described were those of Detroit, Milwaukee, St. Louis, Philadelphia, Richmond, Roanoke, and Youngstown.

87 United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. From School to Work. Highlights from a Study on the Early Employment Experience of Youth in Seven Communities, 1952-1957. Washington, D.C.: the Department, March, 1960.

Summary of major results of United States Department of Labor study. (See No. 88.)

88 United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. School and Early Employment Experience of Youth, Bulletin No. 1277. Washington, D.C.: the Department, August, 1960. (A-8, B-3, C-1, C-38, C-72, C-98, C-142, C-145, C-148, D-5, D-17, D-22, D-25, D-26, D-33, D-37, D-43, D-48, D-54)

Report based on seven communities, one each in the New England, Middle Atlantic, South Atlantic, and Mountain regions and three in the East North Central region. The communities ranged from about 40,000 to 350,000 in population. No area had a significant non-white population. Several areas were characterized by surplus labor. Study included the years, 1952-57.

Study population included 21,887 young people (including 9,505 dropouts and 12,382 high school graduates) who did not attend any school of advanced learning or take full-time training in the summer or fall following graduation. Official school records were the sources of information concerning such variables as intelligence quotient, grade completed, and vocational course completed for both dropouts and graduates. Interviews, held with a subsample of 3,931 of these school leavers (1,612 dropouts and 2,319 graduates), concerned the post-school work experience of those who had remained in their home communities. Data were reported regarding reasons for leaving as given by counselors and dropouts. Graduates and dropouts were compared in such areas as work experience, earnings, occupations, commercial and industrial courses completed, and experience in obtaining employment. Comparisons were also made between males and females on these variables.

89 Van Dyke, L.A., and Hoyt, K.B. The Drop-out Problem in Iowa High Schools. Iowa City: State University of Iowa, College of Education, 1958. (B-36, B-51, B-68, C-21, C-59, C-60, C-85, C-105, C-115)

From the total number of students entering ninth grade in Iowa schools in 1950-52, a dropout population was identified. A 5 per cent random sample of this group, chosen to represent the different groups of schools by size, was used to compare dropouts and graduates on a number of variables hypothesized to be relevant.

90 Vogel, Anita. "How to Check Drop-outs," School Management, V, 11 (November, 1961), 74-84. (E-2, E-14, 15, 16)

Report on some programs undertaken throughout the United States to help or guide dropouts.

91 Walton, John. "Guiding Young People into the Most Suitable Employment," The American Child, XXXIX, 2 (March, 1957), 3. (A-9, E-17)

Prospects of school dropouts in the British labor market and the Youth Employment Service of Britain are discussed.

92 Weary, Bettina. "Stay-in-School Campaign," School Life, XXXIX, 8 (May, 1957), 13-15.

Features of National Stay-in-School Campaign: Handbook for Communities are discussed.

93 Webbink, Gladys F. "Work Experience of Young Persons in New York State and New York City, 1956-1957," Labor Market Review, XII (October, 1959), 1-4. (A-10, D-27)

Subjects comprised men and women in New York State and New York City who were 14 to 24 years old in 1956-57. Report concerns their relationship to the labor market, as, for example, percentage working part-time and reasons for part-time work.

94 Wills, Claude C., Jr. "A Program to Decrease the Number of Early School Leavers," The Bulletin of the National Association

of Secondary-School Principals, XL, 221 (September, 1956), 93-97. (E-34)

Describes program used in Southwest High School, Atlanta, Georgia, to identify potential dropouts, particularly those of low mental ability. The elementary schools are asked to notify the high schools of any retarded children, those from poorly adjusted homes, and those planning on early marriage, in order that the high schools can take steps to help keep them in school.

95 Wolfbein, Seymour L. "Transition from School to Work: A Study of the School Leaver," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXVIII (October, 1959), 98-105. (C-2, C-22, C-39, C-98, C-148, D-33, D-44)

Summary and analysis of United States Department of Labor study. (See No. 88.)

96 Woolatt, Lorne H. "Why Capable Students Drop Out of High School," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XLV (November, 1961), 1-9. (A-22, A-32, C-60, C-61, C-62, C-149, C-164)

Summary of selected, recent studies dealing with the intelligence of dropouts. Included are:

1. Study by Glen Stice in which an academic aptitude test was given to a representative sample of 9,700 public high school sophomores, a large percentage of whom later dropped out.
2. Study by L.A. Van Dyke and K.B. Hoyt in 1956-58 concerning Iowa youths who entered the ninth grade in 1950-52. (See No. 89.)
3. Series of pilot studies conducted by the United States Department of Labor on the work adjustment of dropouts. (See No. 88.)
4. New York State Holding Power Project in 1954-55 in 90 selected state school districts. Data were gathered on the 12,855 seventh-graders in these schools, and an accurate account was maintained of all who left school for any reason.

97 Young, Joe M. "Can Counseling Reduce Dropouts?" The Clearing House, XXX, 1 (September, 1955), 22-23.

98 Young, Joe M. "Lost, Strayed, or Stolen," The Clearing House, XXIX, 2 (October, 1954), 89-92. (B-37, B-59, B-69, D-18)

Members of the guidance departments in the Tucson, Arizona, public schools asked teachers, pupils, neighbors and others if they knew what had happened to approximately 200 junior high school graduates who failed to enroll in senior high school the succeeding fall. It was found that 41 per cent of these youths were dropouts.